# COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

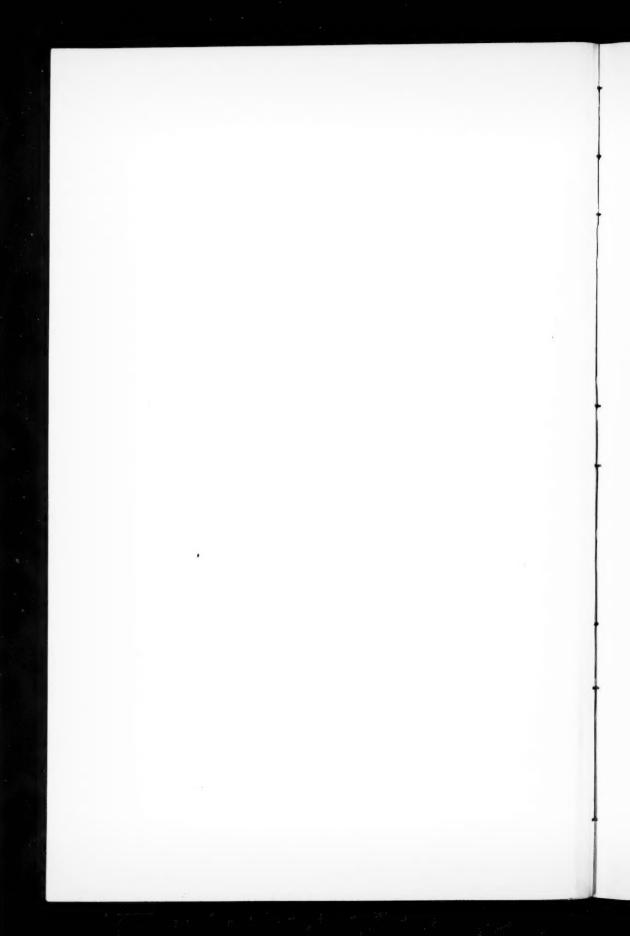
THE JOURNAL of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers



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FUTURE DEMAND FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE: HOW MANY AND WHO?	- 5
PREDICTING ENROLLMENT FROM YEAR TO YEAR	14
IN DEFENSE OF A SUBJECT PATTERN H. A. Spindt	19
STABILITY AND CHANGE IN HIGHER EDUCATION. A. J. Brumbaugh	33
ACCELERATION BY EXAMINATION	39
RECENT UNIVERSITY TRENDS IN SOVIETIZED POLAND	53
THE ADMISSIONS OFFICE IN TWENTY-EIGHT SELECTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES E. M. Gerritz and Alfred Thomas, Jr.	65
AN APPRAISAL OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PUBLICATIONS USED FOR PROMOTIONAL PURPOSES William Glasgow Bowling	69
RECOGNITION OF SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT Guy H. Thompson	81
THE "STAYING POWER" AND RATE OF PROGRESS OF UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN FRESHMEN	86
THE ORIGIN, BACKGROUND, AND PHILOSOPHY OF THE OFFICE OF ADMISSIONS AND RECORDS	100
EDITORIAL COMMENT	110
BOOK REVIEWS	116
In the Journals	135
Reported to Us	138
On the Retirement of James A. Gannett	145
Pre-Legal Education	146
A.A.C.R.A.O.—Treasurer's Report, 1952-53	153
DIRECTORY OF REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS IN MEMBER	
Institutions of the A.A.C.R.A.O	155
PLACEMENT SERVICE	188

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### Ohio University Makes Plans for Sesquicentennial

UTLER HALL with its famous colonial style is the architectural signature of Ohio University, located at Athens in Southeastern Ohio. Complete with chimes and night lights, the tower is the symbol of the 150-year-old university.

A comprehensive building program over the past five years has added similar colonial-style structures to the university, the first institution of

higher learning in the Northwest Territory.

Dr. Manasseh Cutler, for whom the hall was named, and General Rufus Putnam, who laid out the town of Athens and the campus for the university in 1799, are the founders. The co-educational, state-supported school had its background in the Ordinance of 1787, a measure for the government of the Northwest Territory. Although it was first established by the Territorial Assembly as the "American Western University" in 1802, it was not until February 18, 1804, that Ohio University was created by the first state legislature of the state of Ohio.

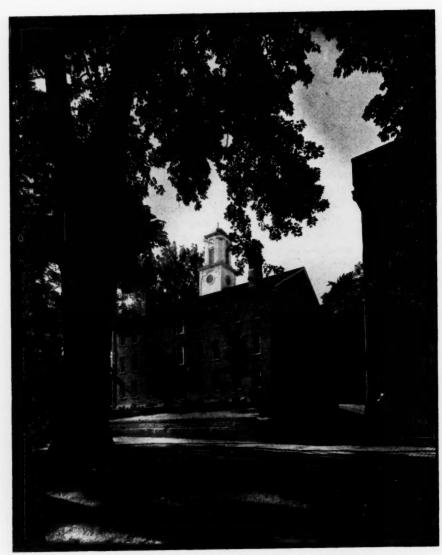
From a beginning curriculum devoted largely to the study of arts and sciences the university has added the following colleges and major units: University College; the Colleges of Applied Science, Arts and Sciences, Commerce (School of Journalism), Education, Fine Arts (School of Dramatic Art and Speech, Music, Painting and Allied Arts); the Graduate College, the Division of Physical Education and Athletics, the Reserve Officers' Training Corps Division, the University Extension Division, the

Summer School and three branches in other Ohio cities.

From a two-room two-story brick building and an opening day student body of three men, Ohio University has grown until at the opening of the 1953-54 school year its 35 principal buildings and 43 auxiliary buildings housed an enrollment of 4500 students. The university's accreditation and affiliation list is among the best in the nation.

Plans are already under way in preparation for the sesquicentennial year of 1954, which will highlight 150 years of higher learning in the nation's

oldest state university west of the Alleghenies.



CUTLER HALL, OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, OHIO

OCTOBER 1953

## COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

Volume 29 Number 1

THE JOURNAL of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers

# Future Demand for Admission to College: How Many and Who?<sup>1</sup>

R. CLYDE WHITE

For the next 20 years the major problem of the colleges and universities will be, not finding enough students, but selecting from the vast numbers who are going to be knocking at their doors. That is the most important conclusion drawn from a four-year study of probable future demand for admission to college by high school

graduates in the Cleveland area.

In the area covered by the study 2,154,722 people were living on April 1, 1950. This area, comprising Cuyahoga County and 6 contiguous counties, has some degree of unity for several purposes. As an economic community, Cleveland is clearly the center of both production and consumer buying. It is a transportation nucleus for highway, lake and railroad traffic and could be a much more important air terminal than it has yet been. It is the entertainment center for the area. About 175 high schools serve the youth population, and 13 colleges and universities, fairly well distributed with respect to density of population, with enrollments of about 35,000 at the present time, make it a higher education community. The sense of community was sufficiently strong to assure the co-operation of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The report of this study under the title of *These Will Go to College*, by the writer as Director of Institutional Research, was published in December, 1952, by The Press of Western Reserve University.

every one in a sample of 60 high schools and of all of the colleges and universities.

The high birth-rates in the 1940's, the pressure of employers for more college-trained people, the desire on the part of young people to improve their status, and a reviving interest in liberal education, point to a rising demand for admission to college.

### PAST EXPERIENCE IN THE CLEVELAND AREA

In each decade since 1900 the population of this Cleveland area has increased by substantial amounts, barring the decade from 1930 to 1940 when the increase was only 1.9 per cent. Since 1900 the population has increased by 51 per cent, and between 1940 and 1950 there was an increase of 18.5 per cent. During the last three years that increase has continued because of the excess of births over deaths and the net immigration of adults in search of employment in the new industrial plants which have been built since the time of the census.

The number of students enrolled in the local institutions of higher learning was only about 18,000 in 1930, and this number dropped to 13,500 in 1933. In 1947 it reached 43,500 at the height of the G.I. enrollment and declined again to 34,500 in 1950, which is at or near the expected low point in the present cycle of college age young people. These figures include part-time students who constitute a large portion of the students in four of the 13 institutions. The freshman class is normally the first stage in higher education to go up or down. In this area the number of surviving 18-year-olds reached the low point of 21,797 in 1951.2 This number is expected to rise to more than 51,000 in 1965, then to drop slightly for a few years and rise again in 1969. The very fact of the rising birth rate in the 1940's would assure more potential college students unless they moved away from the Cleveland area or the popularity of college declined seriously. Neither of these possibilities seems probable. Hence, the only reasonable basis to plan for higher education in the area is to assume that a rising number of students will seek admission to local as well as to other institutions.

The proportion of high school graduates who enroll in college continues to rise. We are near the maximum proportion of youth

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> This and other numbers were estimated from births 18 years prior, using life expectancy rates derived from 1939-41.

who will graduate from high school, however. In 1930 only 25 per cent of the high school graduating classes in this area enrolled in college, but by 1950 this proportion had risen to 31 per cent, or by about one-fourth. Since there will be many more 18-year-olds in 1960 than in 1950, because of the great differences in the number of births in 1932 and 1942, the colleges will have much heavier demands made upon them to admit freshmen. By 1960 it is possible that, not 31 per cent, but 34 per cent of the high school graduates will be admitted to college, if the practices of the last two decades continue.

Students from the Cleveland area who graduated from high school in the years 1930, 1940, 1948 and 1950, and who entered college, sought admission and were accepted in 518 different institutions of higher learning in this country and abroad. The percentage of these, who enrolled in the 13 colleges of the Cleveland area, varied from 62.4 per cent in 1940 down to 51.0 per cent in 1948. Thus, we know that the local institutions will probably have to find room for somewhat more than half the young people who go to college from our local high schools, or they will have to change their admission policies. In these same four years for which data were obtained, between 82.0 per cent and 83.6 per cent of all Cleveland area students, who enrolled in college, entered colleges within the state of Ohio—less than 20 per cent of them went outside the state in their freshman year. Enrollment in the state universities of Ohio during this 20-year period increased many fold, but the private institutions took many more students also. By 1960 all institutions will have great demands made upon them, even greater than at the height of the G.I. enrollments.

How much ability do students who enroll in college have? When the field work was done for the Cleveland area study, the measures of intelligence and achievement which the high school had in the records were copied on to the schedule. Several different tests had been used, but they were reasonably comparable, and the resulting distribution of I.Q.'s plus the P.L.R.'s is approximately normal. The sample contained 2,149 in 1950, for whom the median I.Q. was 115, but 12 per cent of these high school graduates who were admitted to college had I.Q.'s of 131 or higher, while an additional 1.5 per cent with I.Q.'s of 131 or higher did not enroll in college. The number of high school graduates with I.Q.'s of 116 or higher who

did not enroll in college from the 1950 graduating classes was equal to 12 per cent of the total graduates, yet the colleges admitted a like percentage who had I.Q.'s of 100 or less.

### MOTIVATION

The reasons why students go to college are complex, but some can be identified with some degree of accuracy. Some of the ablest high school graduates undoubtedly go to college to cultivate the intellectual life and to understand the human problems of the modern world. In this study we had no means to estimate the number with this kind of motivation. Another reason for going to college is that "everybody is going to college." This desire to do what "everybody" is doing has much weight with a good many young people in most schools and occasionally, as in the case of one of our rural schools, it is the accepted pattern of behavior for graduates of the school. However, in this study we could take account of this only as a component cause of the rising trend in college enrollments.

But the drive to go to college in order to have a better job was studied. A "better job" may be one which pays more than some other job, or it may be one which has more prestige, like the learned professions, or it may be a job which has both of these advantages. Conceived in this way, a college education is a device for getting ahead in the economic and social world. Obviously this is related to the social status which the high school graduate has or would like to have. If he goes to college, he may simply assure himself of the status of his parental family, or he may prepare himself for an occupation with high prestige value and gradually step up to a higher social

status.

Representatives of 44 business firms were interviewed to find out how many college graduates they employed in mid-year 1950 and how many positions they had which they would like to fill with college graduates. These firms represented 38 varieties of commerce and industry and together employed 85,000 people. In the manufacturing firms 6.9 per cent of the employees were college graduates, but, if they had all they wanted for specific jobs, the percentage would have been 12.1 of all employees. Transportation, communications and utilities would have shown corresponding figures of 4.9 and 7.1; wholesale and retail trade would have increased from 5.1 to 11.3; finance, insurance and real estate would have increased from 9.0 to

13.2; and service industries from .8 to 2.1. If all of these kinds of business are put together, there is evidence that in 1950, instead of 5,535 college graduates, these 44 firms would employ 9,734 college graduates, or an increase of 76 per cent over their current employment. Young people are aware of this pressure applied by employers through personnel departments to obtain better educated workers, and many of them respond by going to college to get a better job to earn more money to live in a better neighborhood to have a more

satisfying social position in the community.

The relation of social class position and enrollment in college was studied. From the sample of 60 high schools, a smaller sample of 37 high schools was chosen for the social class study. In May, 1950, field workers went to these schools and interviewed a random sample of members of the graduating classes. We obtained 1,053 schedules which could be used. During the summer of 1951 the schools were revisited to determine who of these students enrolled in college and who did not. Using the method developed by Professor W. Lloyd Warner and his associates to determine the social class position of a family in the community, the class to which each of the 1,053 graduates belonged was computed. The classes identified were Upper, Upper Middle, Lower Middle, Upper Lower and Lower Lower. About half of the graduates were in the two lowest classes, a quarter in the Lower Middle, about 22 per cent in the Upper Middle and about 2 per cent in the Upper. Of the students who enrolled in college 47.5 per cent were in the two highest classes, 23.9 in the Lower Middle class and 28.6 in the two lowest classes, but 62 per cent of those who did not enroll were in the two lowest classes.

There is a great reservoir of ability in the Lower Middle and the two lowest classes which is lost to the colleges. Out of the 1,053 students, 127 who had I.Q.'s of 116 or higher did not enroll in college. This number is equal to about a third of those who did enroll, many of whom had I.Q.'s low enough to be questionable. Of the 127 who did not enroll, 32 per cent were Lower Middle and 56 per cent were in the two lowest classes. Adding these two groups together, we have accounted for 88 per cent of those with high ability who did not enroll in college. Attending college is a part of the culture pattern of the two highest classes, but it is just as clearly not a part of the culture pattern of the two lowest classes.

To summarize: of the young people who graduate from high

school, 92 per cent of the Upper class enroll in college; 66 per cent of those in the Upper Middle class enroll in college; 32 per cent of those in the Lower Middle class; 20 per cent of those in the Upper Lower class; and 14 per cent of those in the Lower Lower class. Ability is not equally distributed among the five social classes, but the differences are by no means as great as the differences in proportions who enroll in college.

### PROBABLE DEMAND FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE

The probable demand for admission to college by high school graduates of the Cleveland area has been estimated for each year through 1969. The first estimate was a straight line projection of the proportion of the 18-year-olds or equivalent 18-year-olds in 1950 who enrolled in college. The number of those who enrolled was taken as 100, and for each succeeding year through 1969 the expected enrollment was expressed as a percentage of the number who enrolled from the 1950 graduating classes. This index in 1960 is 154, in 1965 it is 219 and in 1969 it is 218. These index numbers reflect only the high birth rates of the 1940's. They do not take account of acceleration in the number of high school graduates who enter college, but the experience from 1930 to 1950 shows that there was acceleration. It amounts to approximately four tenths of one per cent of the 18-year-olds annually. That is, in 1940 about 16.7 per cent of the 18-year-olds enrolled in college, but in 1950 the percentage was 20.7. The conclusion is warranted that straight line projection of 1950 experience underestimates probable demand for admission to college by an increasing amount.

The annual increment due to acceleration was, therefore, taken into account. The table on page 11 shows the estimates of the number of high school graduates each year who will enroll in college, the index number and the number who, present admission practices continuing, will enroll in the 13 colleges of the Cleveland-Akron-Lorain area. It must be emphasized that these estimates are for freshmen only. After 1952 the number in the sophomore class begins to rise, after 1953 junior classes are likely to be a little larger, likewise senior classes after 1954. Enrollments in professional schools do not follow quite the same pattern, but in the aggregate they will undoubtedly show rising curves, first, because of these figures and, second, because for two or more generations the proportion of all occupied persons

ESTIMATED PROBABLE ENROLLMENT IN ALL COLLEGES AND IN CLEVELAND AREA COLLEGES, FROM LOCAL HIGH SCHOOLS, 1950–1969

	Freshmen Enrollment Estimates		
Year	All Colleges	13 Local Colleges	Index
1950	4,848	2,603	100
1951	4,598	2,469	95
1952	4,901	2,632	101
1953	5,016	2,694	103
1954	5,134	2,757	106
1955	5,432	2,917	112
1956	5,849	3,141	121
1957	5,773	3,000	119
1958	6,279	3,372	129
1959	7,200	3,866	149
1960	8,938	4,800	184
1961	9,110	4,892	187
1962	8,325	4,471	172
1963	8,790	4,720	181
1964	11,493	6,172	237
1965	13,692	7,352	282
1966	12,894	6,824	266
1967	13,126	7,049	271
1968	12,478	6,701	257
1969	14,423	7,745	295

who follow professions has been growing. For freshmen alone in 1960 the colleges will require 84 per cent more classroom space. Appropriate increases in faculty, administrative staff, libraries and laboratories are inevitable, if present admission practices go on indefinitely. In 1965 the freshmen will be equal to 282 per cent of their number in 1950, and the percentage will have risen to 295 in 1969. The colleges and universities of this country have never seen anything like this picture in the past.

### A PROBLEM FOR EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT

What shall we do about the rising tide of high school graduates who want to enter college? There are several alternatives, but before one of them can be selected a decision on minimum ability required for admission to liberal arts colleges, and undergraduate professional colleges has to be made. The I.Q., interpreted in relation to the other qualifications of the individual student, is perhaps the most useful criterion. High school grades are of little value for two reasons: first, because standards of grading are very uneven, and, second, because the curricula of a great many public high schools do not prepare

students to do college-grade work. Some generally reliable measure of ability has to be used, and probably each college has to set minimum standards of ability. It is the duty of faculties to recommend the standard of ability, but executive management, that is, the administrative officers and the trustees, have to give the standard official sanction. When this decision is made, the first step has been taken toward future orderly conduct of the institutions of higher learning.

The Cleveland study points up two other policy decisions which each institution has to make: namely, determination of maximum students for various programs of the individual institution and the development and implementation of a plan to finance an institution of the size determined. These two decisions have to be made by trustees, with the advice of the faculty and the administration. Almost all private institutions are faced with the necessity of raising more money to finance the existing or expanded programs, and bringing faculty salaries up to a self-respecting level should normally have priority over other matters. How are the trustees and the presidents going to raise funds for the private institutions? That is a decision which they have to make after they determine the size of institution they want. They have only a few years to make the decision and prepare to pay the costs of whatever their decision entails. The tide of students is beginning to rise. The state universities and municipal colleges face equally imperative decisions about size and standards of admission. Some state universities have assumed that any graduate of any high school with 15 credits has to be offered a chance to prove his ability, whether he had any real college preparatory work or not. Perhaps the governing bodies of these institutions have to review this policy and think of either expanding their facilities greatly or reducing the number of eligible high school graduates. Then, of course, they have to persuade the legislatures to appropriate the money.

The foregoing comment, anent the future demand of students for admission to college, seems absurdly elementary. But the fact is that far too many boards of trustees have done little toward making and implementing the necessary decisions. Some of them seem inclined to drift with the tide and let the admissions offices admit as many as a lack of policy permits. Furthermore, it is easy for trustees to avoid their responsibilities as officials who have accepted a public trust and assume that, if students cannot get into the local institutions, they can go elsewhere. But the facts are that the high birth-rates

appeared everywhere throughout the country, and the acceleration of admission of high school graduates to college is national. If a large proportion of any given area, such as Cleveland-Akron-Lorain, go elsewhere, then young people from other parts of the state and country are going to try to get into Cleveland-Akron-Lorain institutions. The trustees and regents cannot escape the responsibility of making decisions on standards of admission, the size of their respective institutions of higher learning and an effective plan, conscientiously pushed, to finance the programs envisioned.

The trustees have the next move!

### Predicting Enrollment from Year to Year

CLIFFORD L. CONSTANCE

Most of the published material on prediction of college enrollments is concerned with long-range factors such as birth rates, migration, military policies, economic conditions, social attitudes toward higher education, and the like. These are only remotely useful in answering the question put to every registrar: "How many students will we have next fall?" From an empirical study made at the University of Oregon we are reporting some practical conclusions and suggesting a specific approach for any registrar who wants to

dig out the answer for his own institution.

Briefly our suggestion is that the statistical record of past institutional enrollments should be analyzed and certain ratios computed from these observed data. Then a basic prediction formula should be set up on a year-to-year or fall-to-fall basis, and semester-by-semester (or term-by-term) corrections should be added to the basic formula as trends by sessions within the current year show deviations from normal ratios. Obviously this is only a short-range approach, designed to squeeze down the inevitable margin of error as soon or as late as related facts become available. We are forced into this type of forecasting by the 1941-47 experiences of sudden changes in our environment, where the pattern of the preceding year or years was no guide whatsoever. We are assuming that the shadow of coming events may be cast three months or six months ahead, even if it cannot be seen as far as twelve months in advance.

To facilitate clear reference and coherent discussion in the following paragraphs, we present our statistical conclusion now in terms of this general predictive formula:  $X = r \ Y + a \ D_s + b \ D_{ss} + k$ . Here X is the factor of enrollment to be predicted; Y is the factor from which the basic prediction of X is to be made; Y is the observed relationship (average annual ratio Y between these two factors in the past; Y is are the observed deviations from average past session-by-session trends for the current fall and spring semesters and summer session; Y is the numerical constants to be determined so as to reduce errors in Y to the minimum. This is to say that our basic estimate of Y will be made from the previous fall's value of Y, assuming

the same relationship between them as in past years. This first basic estimate will be revised if and as we find the current year's enrollment is moving up or down differently, session by session, than has been normal in the past.

#### **FACTORS**

What factors can profitably be used for X and Y? No factors external to the institution were found valuable for our short-range forecasts. We found effective predictions of total enrollment could be made from our own previous total, from undergraduates, and from new students respectively; we did not find useful relationships for predicting total enrollment from old students, men only, or women only. For predicting men's enrollment we profitably used previous men, total, and undergraduate enrollments. No other factor than their own previous number was effective for the prediction of women's enrollment. New students were predicted best from the previous year's new students, and from total enrollment; these proved more efficient predictors than did current admissions data, even though the latter covered the number of new admissions to as late as the middle of August. Old students were best predicted by previous old, total, and undergraduates. Estimates of enrollment by classes were more accurate when based on the next lower class of the preceding year than when based on the same class of the preceding year —continuance of specific students is more definite than trends in gross numbers. This method may be extended as far as significant relationships can be found, provided only that a ratio can be computed from the records of past years. Since no great precision is claimed for any of the predictions, it may be hoped that an average of several estimates will tend to cancel out part of the errors and produce a more valid forecast than would any one alone.

#### ANNUAL RATIO

This should represent a generalization of the trend of relationship between Y of the previous year and X of the following year. It should be calculated over a period of years which is a true sample of institutional history—it should include times of rising and of falling enrollment, of men leaving for and returning from war, of balancing economic and other conditions so far as may be determined. Generally it will be in terms of fall data, since these usually represent maximum

enrollments and also are the point of most interest in prediction. This ratio should be a value which will make sense when standing by itself as the basic prediction. It proves to be of nearly equal accuracy when computed by any of several methods—mean or median or other value were relatively comparable for us. It is not this basic r factor but the corrective factors in the formula which produce its forecasting effectiveness. Average ratios derived from a number of years are more accurate in prediction than are those simply projected from the most recent one year or two years. In "normal times" this might not be so, but in our times the experiences of the last year may be misleading guides for the next year.

### CORRECTION RATIOS

For the session-by-session corrections it is necessary to compute ratios of spring/fall enrollments and of summer/spring enrollments over the selected period of years. With these as norms, the expected enrollment in the current spring semester would be that spring/fall ratio times the last fall enrollment. If the realization was identical with the expectation there would be no deviation and Ds in the formula would disappear. Otherwise the deviation would be in the form D<sub>s</sub> = Enrollment<sub>s</sub> -s/f Enrollment<sub>t</sub>, if s/f is the normal spring/fall ratio. If the realization exceeds the expectation, D<sub>s</sub> has a positive value and raises the prediction from the basic formula which was applied before spring data were available. Likewise, a summersession correction may be added to the basic prediction wherever it reduces errors. Ideally, potential over-estimates from fall data should be corrected by downward session-by-session trends and resulting negative deviation factors.

#### CONSTANT FACTORS

After all necessary ratios, and deviations based on normal ratios, have been computed the big job is determination of the numeric constants a, b, k. For a and b this is a matter of compute-and-try, the trial which yields the lowest mean error being the most efficient combination for predictive use; this involves the substitution of systematic series of values until it is clear that errors are not decreasing further. It was found to be easier and also clearer in reasoning if all predictions and related errors were made in terms of numbers of students, rather than in terms of percentages, since the latter vary in significance

according to the base of reference. Usually it will be found that any particular formula tends to over-estimate or to under-estimate, so that the algebraic sum of errors will be a positive or a negative number rather than zero; k is simply the number which will make this sum approximate zero. With determination of the best constants, a final set of values for X should be calculated and an index of relative accuracy determined. Most logical for this purpose is the mean error, which is simply the average size of final error ignoring plus or minus signs. A working scheme for systematically proceeding through computations to final formulas is illustrated below. From the fictitious data put down and manipulated these conclusions may be drawn, in addition to the predictive "best formulas" which are developed below: (1) prediction from fall data alone leaves a mean error of 28.8; (2) the best prediction involving spring as well as fall data reduces the mean error to 23.0; (3) the best combination including summersession data has a mean error of 24.0, higher than from spring and fall data only, and therefore summer can be ignored in this situation.

```
Record of past enrollments (X, Y are total enrollment)
  School year (fall, spring, summer): 1947-48 1948-49 1949-50 1950-51 1951-52 1952-53
  Total enrollment fall (X, Y, T<sub>1</sub>)
                                      1000
                                               1050
                                                        1110
                                                                 1120
                                                                           1105
  Total enrollment spring (T.
                                               1005
                                                        1070
                                                                 1060
                                       955
                                                                           1045
  Total enrollment summer (Tss)
                                       300
                                                320
                                                         340
                                                                  325
                                                                            345
  Ratios computed from above data: r=1.02; s/f=0.95; ss/s=0.32
 D_{s}(=T_{s}-s/f T_{f})

D_{ss}(=T_{ss}-ss/s T_{s})
                                                        +15
Prediction from fall data (X=1.02 \text{ Y+k})
  Estimates (and errors; (k=0)
                                             020 1071 1132 1142 1127
(-30 (-39 (+12 (+37 (+27
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+7
  Estimates (and errors; (k=-1)
                                           1119
                                                 1070
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+2
                                             (-31)
                                                      (-40
      (Numeric sum of errors=144; mean error=28.8
  Best formula: X = 1.02 \text{ Y} - 1
Prediction from spring data (X=1.02 \text{ Y}+aD_a+k)
  Estimates (errors; (a=1, k=0)
                                           1025
                                                   1078
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+25
                                                      (-32
                                             (-25
  Estimates (errors; (a=1, k=-5)
                                                   1073
                                           1020
    (Algebraic sum of errors=0
                                             (-30)
                                                      (-37)
      (Numeric sum of errors=134; mean error=26.8
  Estimates (errors; (a=2, k=0)
                                           1030
                                                             (+42
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+43
                                                      (-25)
  Estimates (errors; (a=2, k=-9
                                           1021 1076
    (Algebraic sum of errors = -2
                                             (-29)
       (Numeric sum of errors=124; mean error=24.8
  Estimates (errors; (a=3, k=0)
                                           (-15 (-18
1023 1080
(-27 (-30
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+61
  Estimates (errors; (a=3, k=-12)
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+1
                                                      (-30)
       (Numeric sum of errors=115; mean error=23.0
```

```
Estimates (errors; (a=4, k=0)
                                                                  (+21
                                                         (+72
     (Algebraic sum of errors=+79
                                           (-10
                                                   (-11
                                                                          (+7
   Estimates (errors; (a=4, k=-16)
                                        1024
                                                1083
     (Algebraic sum of errors = - 1
                                                           (+56
                                                     -27
       (Numeric sum of errors=123; mean error=24.6
   Best formula: X=1.02 Y+3Ds-12
 Prediction from summer data (X=1.02 Y+aDa+bDas+k)
   Estimates (errors; (a=o, b=1, k=o)
                                        1014
     (Algebraic sum of errors = -6
                                          (-36 (-41
                                                         (+10
                                                                 (+23
                                                                          (+38
   Estimates (errors; (a=0, b=1, k=+1)
                                        1015 1070
     (Algebraic sum of errors = -1
                                          (-35)
                                                  (-40
                                                          (+11
                                                                   (+24
       (Numeric sum of errors=149; mean error=29.8
   Estimates (errors; (a=0, b=2, k=0)
                                                1067
                                                         1128
                                          (-42
     (Algebraic sum of errors=-19
                                                  (-43
                                                          (+8)
   Estimates (errors; a=0, b=2, k=+4)
                                        1012
                                               1071
     (Algebraic sum of errors=+1
                                          (-38)
                                                          (+12
                                                  (-39)
       (Numeric sum of errors=155; mean error=31.0
   Estimates (errors; (a=1, b=1, k=0)
                                        1019
                                                  (-34
                                                          (+25
     (Algebraic sum of errors=+12
                                          (-31
                                                        1143 (+23
   Estimates (errors; (a=1, b=1, k=-
                                        1017 1074
     (Algebraic sum of errors=+2
                                                  (-36)
                                          (-33)
       (Numeric sum of errors=140; mean error=28.0
  Estimates (errors; (a=1, b=2, k=0)
                                        1013
                                                1074
                                                  (-36)
                                                          (+23
     (Algebraic sum of errors = -1
                                          (-37)
       (Numeric sum of errors=145; mean error=29.0
                                        1024
                                                1083
  Estimates (errors; (a=2, b=1, k=0)
                                                        1160
                                                                 1120
     (Algebraic sum of errors=+30
                                          (-26)
                                                 (-27)
                                                         (+40
                                        1018 1077
  Estimates (errors; (a=2, b=1, k=-
     (Algebraic sum of errors=0
      (Numeric sum of errors=130; mean error=26.0
                                       (-32 (-29 (+38 105) 1078 1158 1158 1078 1158
  Estimates (errors; (a=2, b=2, k=0)
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+17
  Estimates (errors; (a=2, b=2, k=
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+2
                                         (-35)
                                                  (-32)
      (Numeric sum of errors=140; mean error=28.0
  Estimates (errors; (a=3, b=1, k=0)
                                                        1175
(+55
                                                                 1116
                                        1029
                                                  (-20
                                         (-21
                                                                  (+11
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+48
                                       1019 1080
  Estimates (errors; (a=3, b=1, k=-10)
    (Algebraic sum of errors=-2
                                          (-31)
                                                  (-30)
      (Numeric sum of errors=120; mean error=24.0
                                       1023
                                                        1173
(+53
  Estimates (errors; (a=3, b=2, k=0)
                                             1088
                                       (-27 (-22
1016 1081
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+35
  Estimates (errors; (a=3, b=2, k=
                                                       1166
                                                          (+46
                                                                  (-10
    (Algebraic sum of errors=0
                                         (-34)
                                                 (-29)
      (Numeric sum of errors=146; mean error=29.2
  Estimates (errors; (a=4, b=1, k=0)
                                               1097
                                                                         1118
                                                        1190
(+70
                                                                1112
                                       (-16 (-13
1021 1084
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+66
                                                                (+7
  Estimates (errors; a=4, b=1, k=-13)
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+1
                                                 (-26)
                                         (-29)
      (Numeric sum of errors=123; mean error=24.6
                                         028 1095 1188 10
                                       1028
  Estimates (errors; (a=4, b=2, k=0)
    (Algebraic sum of errors=+53
                                       1017 1084
  Estimates (errors; (a=4, b=2, k=-
                                                        (+57
                                                 (-26)
   (Algebraic sum of errors=-2
                                         (-33)
      (Numeric sum of errors=152; mean error=30.4
Best formula: X = 1.02 \text{ Y} + 3D_0 + D_{00} - 10
```

### In Defense of a Subject Pattern

# A Report to the California Committee for the Study of Education

### H. A. SPINDT

ROBABLY in no part of our educational thought have there been as great differences of opinion as in the field of admission to college. Within the field of admission problems, none has created more heat than the arguments about the problem of a required subject pattern—whether there should be one, and of what it should consist. There have been many studies of subject patterns, and none has shown positively the value of one pattern over another. It seems that differences in subject patterns in high school do not create rank-order lists that show any high degree of correlation with grade point average rank-order lists in college. Many people have concluded from these studies that subject pattern makes no difference—if this conclusion were carried to its logical conclusion, we would have to admit that four years of tiddly-winks or bridge would be as good for college preparation as four years of academic courses in high school! I think everyone will agree that high school algebra is necessary to success in college calculus, and so we must claim that at least some subjects do make a difference in some college majors. Starting with this claim as a minimum, we might next raise the question, or better state the hypothesis, that grades in some subjects are more indicative of subsequent success or failure than are grades in other subjects; while the differences in pattern presented by the high school graduate will not create a rank-order list that will correlate with subsequent college grade point average, the rank-order list created by grades in some subjects will correlate more closely with subsequent college grade point average than grades in other high school subjects.

The University of California has had long experience with admission of freshmen on the basis of their high school records. That admission has never been based merely on completion of a required pattern of subjects, but rather on superior scholastic achievement in a required pattern. Bearing in mind the hypothesis presented in the preceding paragraph, a survey of the experience of the University

of California may prove rewarding.

The educational value or validity of any set of requirements for admission to freshman standing seems to me to rest on three criteria:

1. Requirements for admission should serve to admit those who will probably succeed in the University and defer those who will probably fail. The test for such requirements lies in the degree to which they are a valid selective device.

2. The subject requirements should include studies necessary to normal academic progress in the university from two viewpoints—general educational level and completion of specific prerequisites. In this connection it must be remembered that the University has a deadline to meet at the end of the fourth year of college work.

3. The subject requirements should permit a reasonable degree of freedom to the individual high school student in his election of courses, and to high school authorities in determining content of courses, arrangement of courses in curricula, and requirements for

graduation.

The history of our entrance requirements shows progress in meeting all three of these criteria. Beginning in 1884 and continuing with various adjustments until the present time, freshman applicants were admitted from accredited high schools on the recommendation of the high school principal; from 1884 until 1919, this recommendation took the form of certification that certain subjects passed in the high school should be accepted for specific matriculation requirements, while from 1919 to 1931 the principal of the high school had the right to recommend a student for admission to the University without regard to the pattern of subjects studied. To become an accredited high school involved a scholastic "inspection" by University authorities in the years previous to 1937, but since that year, the scholastic performance of graduates of the high school registered in colleges and universities has been utilized as a more important criterion.

From 1869 to 1919 and again from 1931 to the present time, requirements for admission to the University of California included the completion of specified high school subjects. Trends will appear from a tabulation of such requirements in 1880, 1901, 1915 and 1933.

University control of secondary school curricula before 1909 was not limited to the subjects required for admission, but included a listing of subjects acceptable toward the required minimum of 15 units. Previous to 1909 this subject list was strictly academic in character, except for geometrical drawing and freehand drawing. In that

TABLE I
SUBJECT REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO THE ACADEMIC
COLLEGES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
1880, 1901, 1915 AND 1933

1880*	1901	1915	1933 (in its 1952 form)
English—Grammar & Rhetoric	English—2 units	English—2 units	English—3 units
English Literature	Mathematics— Algebra—1 unit	Mathematics— Algebra—1 unit	Mathematics— Algebra—1 unit
Mathematics—Higher Arithmetic	Geometry—1 unit	Geometry—1 unit	Geometry—1 unit
Algebra to Ouadratics	History—2 units	History—1 unit	U. S. History—1 unit
Plane Geometry	Foreign Language— Latin—3 units	Foreign Language— Any language—	Foreign Language— Any language—
Greek and Roman History	Greek, French or German—2 units	2 units	2 units
Latin—Caesar, Virgil, Cicero and Latin	Physics—1 unit	Laboratory Science— 1 unit	Laboratory Science— (Science as designated by high school)
Grammar and Composition	Restricted Electives— 3 units	Mathematics, Sci-	ı unit
Greek—Grammar and Composition, Xeno-		ence, or Foreign Language—2 units	Advanced course in Mathematics, Sci- ence or Foreign
phon (4 books), Homer's Iliad		Restricted (academic) Electives—2 units	Language—1 unit
(2 books)		Unrestricted Elec-	Unrestricted Electives— 5 units
Geography and U.S. History		tives—3 units	) unto

<sup>\*</sup> The "unit system" did not come into general use until after 1900.

year a large number of new subjects such as mechanic arts and home economics were included in the list but allowable credit was severely restricted. Three years later Chairman E. P. Lewis of the Committee on Schools recommended that the freshman applicant be allowed three units of unrestricted electives, a recommendation that was approved by the Academic Council in 1915.

It is generally assumed that during the years 1919-1931, the University had no subject requirements for admission, because the high school principal was free to recommend any one he wished. Technically this view is correct, but the State Board of Education established rigid requirements for graduation from high school, and the College of Letters and Science of the University required foreign language and high school algebra and geometry for junior standing, so that for all practical purposes subject requirements for admission to the University requirements for admission to the University requirements.

versity were generally maintained by the high schools; in many high schools of the state the local requirements for a recommendation called for at least 12 units of academic courses.

A comparison of the 1915 and 1933 subject patterns required for admission indicates three changes—the requirement in English was increased from two to three units, the "advanced course" requirement was reduced from two units to one unit, and the combination of two restricted and three unrestricted units was changed to five unrestricted units. Since 1933 only one subject change has been made, in that "history—1 unit" is now restricted to "United States History and Civics—1 unit."

In comparison with 1915, however, a most radical change has been made in the definition of subject matter in high school courses. In the 1915 catalogue some thirty-five pages were given over to a detailed prescription of subject content under the heading "Description of the Preparatory Courses." In the 1932 catalog appears:

"The responsibility for determining the scope and content of courses preparatory to admission to the university and for certifying the course to the university under the proper subject designation of the high school program rests primarily with the high school authorities. However, the university believes that the definitions of the College Entrance Examination Board are an adequate guide to the proper organization of college preparatory courses and recommends that they be followed."

In 1934, full responsibility for subject content was placed on the high school principal:

"The responsibility for the granting of certificates to high school students lies with the high school authorities, and students will naturally be guided by their respective principals in making their preparation for entrance to the university.

"Upon the high school authorities rests also the responsibility for determining the scope and content of courses preparatory to admission to the University and for certifying the course to the University under the proper subject designation of the high school program."

As a reminder to a California reader, or a reference to one unfamiliar with the University of California plans of admission, it may be well to insert here a summary of the various ways in which a high school graduate may qualify for admission: 1. A "B" average in those subjects of the following required pattern taken in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades of the high school:

a. U. S. History and Civics	1 unit
b. English	3 units
c. Mathematics—algebra	1 unit
geometry	1 unit
d. Laboratory science of 11th or	

12th grade level

e. Foreign language 2 units

f. Advanced course in mathematics, laboratory science or foreign language

1 unit

1 unit

2. Achieve a scholarship rank in the highest 10th of his graduating class.

3. Achieve grades of "A" or "B" in twelve units of tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade work, with not more than two subject deficiencies in the (a) to (f) list in "1" above.

4. Receive no grades below "C" and achieve "A" or "B" grades in six units of eleventh and twelfth grade work (advanced courses) chosen from the fields of English, mathematics, laboratory science, foreign language and history.

Achieve a standing in the upper half of those who take the College Entrance Examination Board examinations.

The records made by freshmen in their first semester on the Berkeley campus, classified by method of admission, are shown in the pages immediately following. There are included two groups of out-of-state high school graduates, bona fide residents of California admitted under regular rules and nonresidents of whom we require a scholar-ship standing in the upper half of the applicants eligible under regular rules. Following the three pages of general reports are some tables showing in more detail the records of those admitted by variant methods.

The conclusion which may be drawn from these statistical summaries is that minor deviations from the (a) to (f) subject pattern are of comparatively little importance, provided the level of achievement in other (a) to (f) subjects is high.

The most frequent criticisms of the University subject pattern have been made against the limitation of the (f) (advanced course) requirement to the fields of mathematics, science and foreign language; almost as frequent are objections to the requirements of geometry and foreign language. The so-called (f) requirement is a require-

COMPARATIVE SCHOLARSHIP IN INSTITUTION PREVIOUSLY ATTENDED AND FIRST SEMESTER IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, 1948 THROUGH 1952 (FRESHMEN), BERKELEY

Admission	Number	Median GPA <sup>1</sup> in (a)-(f) subjects completed in H.S.	Median GPA in U.C.	Differ- ential at the Median	Correction lation	% Below "C" average in U.C.	% at 1.8 & higher in U.C.	% at 2.1 & lower in H.S.	U.C. GPA (Median) of group with low scholar- ship in H.S.	% at 2.7 & higher in H.S.	U.C. GPA (Median) of group with high scholar ship in H.S.
California—Met Reguirements (a) to (f)	6055	2.40	1.39	10.1-	.50	22.99	28.47	30.25	11.1	25.93	1.96
ating Class	19	2.31	1.26	-1.05		27.87	14.75	40.98	1.04	22.93	1.40
6" A's & B's in last 3 years)  6" A's & B's in Advanced  Academic Subjects last	270	2.21	1.22	-0.99	•	35.92	19.63	48.89	1.02	14.07	1.86
2 yrs. Drincinal's Recommenda.	15	1.94	1.05	-0.89		47.06	17.65	88.23	96.0	ou)	(no cases)
tion Seed of Director	133	16.1	0.95	96.0-	.13	\$2.63	4.51	98.50	0.94	ou)	(no cases)
of Admissions Social Science for Require.	229	1.96	1.06	0.00	.30	44.10	11.35	82.97	1.04	1.31	1.10
ment (f) (Experimental) Berkeley & Glendale H.S. Out-of-State (Bonafide	24	2.08	0.1	-1.08		\$0.00	(no cases)	87.50	0.95	ou)	(no cases)
Residents) Admitted under Regular Rules	772	2.34	1.39	-0.95	.31	27.80	28.52	36.46	1.20	20.94	1.86
Aptitude Test Specials	126	1.90	1.58	0.1-0	.36	15.87	42.06	72.77	1.85	38.10	2.02

<sup>1</sup> On the basis of A-3, B-2, C-1, D-0.
<sup>2</sup> Correlation Coefficients were not figured for less than 100 cases.

TABLE III STUDY OF CASES ADMITTED BY METHOD #3 (15" A & B) SEPTEMBER 1946-FEBRUARY 1950 (INCL.), BERKELEY

	Number	N below "C" average 1st sem. at U.C.	% below "C" average	G.P.A. in Univ.
Subject Shortages				
(a) U. S. History and Civics	3	0	0	1.89
(b) English	3 12*	2	17	1.73
*5 had other subject shortages				
(c) Algebra and Geometry	19*	5	26	1.44
*8 had other subject shortages				
(d) Laboratory Science	35*	7	20	1.40
*10 had other subject shortages				
(e) Foreign Language	84*	20	24	1.51
*17 had other subject shortages				
(f) Advanced Course	97*	26	27	1.34
* 22 had other subject shortages				
Scholarship Shortage				
(Below a "B" average on whatever				
(a) to (f) subjects were completed)	82	37	45	1.06

TABLE IV STUDY OF CASES ADMITTED BY VARIANT METHODS (2–8)\* SEPTEMBER 1946–FEBRUARY 1950 (INCL.), BERKELEY

	Number	N below "C" average 1st sem. at U.C.	% below "C" average	G.P.A. in Univ.
Subject Shortages				
(a) U. S. History and Civics *1 had other subject shortages	7*	1	14.28	1.63
(b) English *6 had other subject shortages	20*	2	10.00	1.60
(c) Algebra and Geometry *15 had other subject shortages	34*	10	29.41	1.45
(d) Laboratory Science *14 had other subject shortages	50*	9	18.00	1.37
(e) Foreign Language *20 had other subject shortages	134*	28	20.89	1.46
(f) Advanced Course *33 had other subject shortages	112*	32	28.57	1.34
Scholarship Shortage (Below a "B" average on whatever				
(a) to (f) subjects were completed)	427	208	48.94	1.01

<sup>\*</sup> Method 2—Upper 10% Method 3—15" A's and B's Method 4—6" A's and B's in advanced subjects Method 6—Principal's recommendation Method 8—Miscellaneous

ment of an advanced course chosen from the fields of mathematics, science or foreign language:

(f) Advanced course chosen from one of the following:

1 (or 2) units—1. Mathematics, a total of 1 unit (second-year algebra, ½ or 1 unit; solid geometry, ½ unit; trigonometry, ½ unit);

 Foreign language, either 1 additional unit in the same foreign language offered under (e), or 2 units of a different foreign lan-

guage;

3. Science, 1 unit of either chemistry or physics in addition to the science offered under (d— Science, 1 unit. This may consist of a year course in one field of science, namely, biology, botany, chemistry, physics, physical science, physiology, or zoology. The science selected must be an advanced laboratory science, and the two semesters must be in the same subject field.)

In general, the requirement may be justified on the ground that a sequence of courses or concentration of work in at least one field in addition to English is desirable from an educational point of view, as opposed to increased spread. The limitation of the fields to mathematics, science or foreign language is justified on the ground that competitive grading and the quality of student in these classes makes grades received more selective in determining probable success in the University than would be true in other classes. High school men generally have claimed that social science courses are equally valuable, and some claim that concentration in any field is just as good as concentration in others.

Between 1934 and 1940, 207 students were admitted with social science used to satisfy the (f) requirement. Their achievement in the University was poor—111 made first semester records below a "C" average.

A conclusion unfavorable to social science may be questioned because the students admitted under this exception had not planned a program to this effect, but were admitted after it had been seen they had no other means of satisfying the (f) requirement. Still further to test social science for the (f) requirement, the University has two

experiments under way with Berkeley High School and George Washington High School of San Francisco. The experiment is just starting in George Washington High School so no students have been received from that school, but from Berkeley High School 24 students have been admitted with a median grade point average in high school of 2.08. These students achieved a median grade point average in the University of California at the end of one semester of 1.00, a differential of -1.08 as compared with a scholastic average for all Berkeley High School transfers of 1.63 and a differential of -0.69.

The degree to which scholarship in particular subjects is more or less important than scholarship in other subjects cannot be conclusively shown from our present statistical studies, because we have never admitted enough students with extensive deviations from the (a) to (f) pattern to be statistically significant. I believe, however, that grades in subjects in which there is a high degree of scholastic competition are a better measure of future academic success than are grades in subjects in which scholastic competition for grades is easy. A high degree of scholastic competition tends to be found in academic type subjects in which a high percentage of good students are registered, and especially in advanced classes of an academic type which have as prerequisites successful completion of elementary courses. It is possible that such competition may be found in other classes, such as stenography or bookkeeping, but it is not probable that classes in mechanic arts, homemaking, vocational agriculture, etc., will provide a sufficiently strong degree of scholastic competition for grades to serve as a valid basis for selective admission to the University. Few studies of this particular problem have been made, so far as I can find; many studies seem to indicate that mere pattern of subjects is not significant, although some of these studies are open to the criticism that the variations in the programs studied were not great enough to create significant differences in preparation. Aigner<sup>2</sup> in 1941 did study the importance of grades in particular subjects from the viewpoint of comparative scholarship in the first semester at UCLA of students transferring from Fairfax High School of Los Angeles. As a result of reading Aigner's report, the University Admissions Office made a somewhat less intensive study of the records of approximately

<sup>1 1946-1950.</sup> 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Herbert L. Aigner—The Relation between Pupils' Records in High School and Success in the Freshman Year of College, M.A. Thesis, U.C.L.A., 1941.

500 transfers from Berkeley High School. A summary of the coefficients of correlation appears in Table V.

### TABLE V

CORRELATION OF GRADES RECEIVED IN INDIVIDUAL SUBJECTS AND GROUPS OF SUBJECTS AT FAIRFAX HIGH SCHOOL WITH GENERAL G.P.A. ACHIEVED AT UCLA, AND AT BERKELEY HIGH SCHOOL WITH GENERAL G.P.A. AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY

	Fairfax	Perkeley
Total High School G.P.A. ((a) to (f) subjects)	0.58	0.55
Number of High School Units	0.007	_
U. S. History	0.41	0.35
English	0.41	0.24
Algebra and Geometry	0.33	
Algebra Geometry		0.27
Laboratory Science	0.41	0.35
Chemistry	0.45	0.54
Physics	0.44	0.43
Physiology	0.30	0.43
Biology	0.30	0.02
First two years of Foreign Language	0.43	0.33
French	0.47	0.26
Latin	0.21	0.54
German	0.24	0.40
Spanish	0.41	0.17
(f) Requirement	0.40	0.42
Science	•	0.51
Mathematics		0.33
Foreign Language		0.48
Fine Arts	0.15	0.18
Practical Arts (typing, shop, etc.)	0.27	0.22
Number of Elective Units	0.12	_
G.P.A. in Elective Units	0.46	0.42*
Merit (behavior score)	0.12	_

<sup>\*</sup> Electives include all courses not included in any of the other classifications. The number and distribution of semester grades are as follows: History, 227; Other social science, 405; Science, 770; English, Speech, etc., 395; Mathematics, 522; Foreign Language, 611.

One must be careful not to draw hard and fast conclusions on the basis of these two studies. Generally, however, both studies tend to bear out the contention that grades received in the (a) to (f) subjects are of greater prognostic value than grades received in other subjects. Generally, also, foreign language and, to a less degree, mathematics justify themselves as entrance subjects from the viewpoint of the first test of a subject requirement: is it a valid selective device? It may be hoped that other studies testing this thesis will be made by some of the larger high schools of California.

The second of the criteria for testing the validity of entrance requirements—whether the student has studied what is necessary to make him ready to continue with advanced study—takes us out of the field of statistics and into the field of opinion and theory.

As an approach to an analysis of the necessary educational experiences and growth that I would consider essential in the four years of high school, let me point out that the University has an educational level to which it hopes its students may arrive after four years of study under its guidance. It is essential, therefore, that certain basic information, training, skills, and mental alertness be at the high

school graduate's command.

There are certainly two aspects of the educational maturity of freshman entrants which should be emphasized. One of these involves subject matter or information, and the other is concerned with method of thinking—how to utilize the sources of information and how to think logically in an elementary way. These two basic elements are not independent. Resourcefulness in analysis is dependent upon training and the availability of factual information. The selection of courses of study for the prospective college student should be made

from this dual point of view.

Advanced study in the University, particularly in the College of Letters and Science, requires elementary information in a wide range of academic subjects. Not all of such information is strictly of a prerequisite nature but is rather a determinant of educational level. Without an adequate information background, an individual student fails to get the greatest possible benefit from his University experiences. Successful study of our minimum requirements also helps to develop an extensive vocabulary, ability to read fast and intelligently, and to express oneself in clear and concise English, both in written and oral form.

While the high school student is building a background of information, it is equally important that he have training in elementary analytic thinking. A good many students get only a faint appreciation of what this means, because the conventional test of educational achievement involves primarily a recital from memory of statements of facts. Some of the (a) to (f) subjects have greater potentiality than others as training material in developing consciousness of thinking processes. Chemistry and physics are most suitable for this pur-

pose, with geometry and other courses in mathematics also of considerable value.

We come now to the third criterion: University entrance requirements should permit a reasonable degree of freedom in the high school. No part of a required entrance pattern can be considered by itself, without reference to other subjects—if a subject is required, it necessarily displaces other subjects in the student's high school program, and so each required subject must be considered from the viewpoint of the comparative value of other subjects. Here we work in two directions, some of us chiseling away at the pattern by saying this is of little value, that is of little value, and so by attrition, doing away with the very heart of a pattern from both the "selective" viewpoint and the "educational level" viewpoint; others of us adding to the pattern by saying this is necessary, that is good, and so by accretion, building up the pattern of requirements to the point where the

high school student has no freedom of choice at all.

University entrance requirements compete for the time of the high school student with legislative, State Board of Education and local school board requirements for graduation from high school, with general education courses and with special interest courses. In justice to the acknowledged responsibilities of the high school in other fields, how much of the high school program should be allotted to University entrance requirements? In the first place, let me say that the needs of the college preparatory student are fully as important as the needs of other students, even though he is in most schools a member of a "minority group." The mere fact that there are larger numbers of non-university students in high school than there are university preparatory students should not be used to imply that the high school has less responsibility for one group than for the other. Next it is important to point out that U. S. History and Civics, and competence in reading and in English expression are general requirements imposed on all students by the State Board of Education. What is asked for the University student in the (a) to (f) pattern is specialized mathematics (algebra and geometry), laboratory science and foreign language, together with a sequence in one of these three fields. If we subscribe to the doctrine of meeting individual needs, surely this does not seem an undue interference with either the high school program, or desirable freedom of choice on the part of the student. However,

when one adds to this program several prerequisites or "recommended courses," a different situation may arise. The entrance requirement plus prerequisite program for any college or major should

normally be limited to approximately ten units. The argument has frequently been made by high school principals that the requirement of a specific pattern results in some students going into college preparatory courses even though they are quite unfit for that type of study. Two reasons are advanced for this undesirable subject choice, first that college preparatory subjects have a superior social standing and second, that parental or student ambition is higher than the individual's academic ability. To my mind this argument against a required pattern has little or no validity. It is no kindness to a student of any age to permit him to live in a dream world in relation to his vocational objective. If he or his parents think he should be an engineer, he should be required immediately to pit himself against the other students with similar plans. If he fails to compete successfully then he is more likely to be open to good vocational counseling than if he had not tried to compete. It is my own opinion that the strong position of vocational education in California high schools results in great part from the "compulsory guidance" of University of California requirements of high grades in selected subjects. As for the superior social standing of the academic courses, one may have to admit the fact in some schools, but many of us have seen the reverse in other schools.

The trend in California since 1912 has been to depend more and more on the high school principal as both the person who determines course content and who advises the individual student in high school. In 1909, the University required 15 units of approved courses; in 1912, three units of restricted electives, twelve units tightly prescribed; in 1915 three units unrestricted electives, two restricted, ten tightly prescribed; 1933, five unrestricted, ten loosely prescribed. Recently approved for a six-year period is an experimental plan to increase still more the responsibility and freedom of the high school:

"University authorities believe that high school students who follow the required pattern of subjects, together with the additional subjects recommended for particular majors, will be well prepared for work in the University. However, the University does not wish to exclude a student who has followed a program of University preparatory studies recommended to him by his high school, and will therefore admit an applicant on "B" average scholarship in a different program of University preparatory studies, provided such a program has been previously filed with and approved by the Board of Admissions and Relations with Schools."

Generally the high school principals of California are as proud and as jealous of the scholastic standing of the University as is the University faculty itself, and few of the high school principals would willingly see those scholastic standards lowered. Such a plan might solve the vexed problem of the liberty of the high school, without affecting adversely the quality of student admitted to the University.

### Stability and Change in Higher Education

A. J. BRUMBAUGH

THE MOST outstanding characteristic of American higher educa-pendent authorizing agency for chartering colleges and universities. Once chartered, the colleges are free to determine their own objectives and the conditions that shall obtain to achieve those objectives. For example, each institution may set its own requirements for admission, its own curriculum or curricula, its own fees, and its own requirements for degrees. As a consequence we have in the United States tax supported universities, liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, junior colleges, and professional or technical schools; also privately supported universities, liberal arts colleges, junior colleges, professional and technical schools and seminaries. There is no system of higher education because there is no central controlling agency in this country to establish such a system. The independence which our higher institutions enjoy reflects the spirit of freedom that is inherent in our national life and gives it strength. It is a freedom which we cherish.

This diversity in higher education, however, gives rise to special problems, particularly when we undertake to adapt to new situations that require common policies and common procedures. Such situations have arisen in recent years relating to credit for educational experience gained in the Armed Forces, acceptance of the General Education Development Tests as a basis for determining the status of students, the acceptance of courses satisfactorily completed in the United States Armed Forces Education Program and the acceptance for credit of courses given by universities at military installations.

When we are confronted with new conditions of the kind just noted it becomes evident that it is relatively difficult to effect farreaching changes in American civilian higher education. This difficulty arises from such factors as the following: decentralization of control to which I have already referred, variations in policies affecting objectives and curricula; and variations in requirements for admissions, degrees and certificates. Certain requirements have become almost universal, though they are far from being uniform in the colleges and universities in the United States. For example, most colleges and universities require a minimum of one year of residence, usually the final year in fulfillment of the degree requirements; most of them require advance matriculation and approval of a program of study leading to a degree; most of them set a minimum level of academic achievement on the basis of which a degree may be granted; most of them accept for transfer purposes some courses taken on the campuses of other institutions.

Generally our higher institutions have achieved a recognition for academic respectability of which they are justly proud. They are scornful of diploma mills and fly-by-night institutions whose primary purpose is to exploit students. As an aid to institutions in maintaining their academic respectability the regional and professional accrediting associations as well as state licensing boards have been a source of strength. It is because they guard so jealously their academic respectability that many colleges and universities are very slow to make adaptations which they think might call their standing into question.

Despite the deterrents to change to which I have just referred, reasonable progress has been made in bringing about institutional adaptations in the light of new conditions. Because of the vivid memories and burning consciences that many educators had as a result of unsound practices in granting blanket credit for military experience following World War I, institutions were forehanded in establishing policies that would be defensible when the question again arose in allowing credit for military experience in connection with World War II. As a safeguard of their standards the colleges and universities in co-operation with the regional accrediting agencies and the American Council on Education established sound policies which were implemented by the publication of The Guide to the Evaluation of Experience in the Armed Forces and by the establishment of the Commission on Accreditation. The Commission on Accreditation was charged with the responsibility of carrying on a continuous evaluation of military training programs and making a continuous appraisal of the practices of institutions in recognizing educational experiences pertinent to their own programs. Likewise the higher institutions agreed upon basic principles relating to the acceptance of competences demonstrated by performance on the General Education Development Tests. In accordance with these principles educational testing centers were established. Also from its beginning,

the United States Armed Forces Institute has had the benefit of the counsel of civilian educators who served on the committee that organized the Institute and who more recently have been members of the Committee on the Armed Forces Educational Program. It is extremely doubtful whether higher educational institutions would ever have come to make these adaptations had they not engaged actively in

formulating the policies underlying them.

Of common interest to higher institutions and to the military services are courses offered by colleges and universities off campus in military installations. Concerning these courses no satisfactory plans have been established to provide continuity and consistency. This problem was recognized a number of years ago and first steps toward its solution were taken when the director of the Commission on the Accreditation of Educational Experience in the Armed Forces at the request of the American Council on Education visited a number of colleges and universities in all parts of the United States for the purpose of exploring the possibility (a) of establishing the equivalency of courses among institutions; (b) of determining a basis for adjusting residence requirements; and (c) of establishing procedures for counselling of military personnel who became candidates for degrees in civilian institutions. It was proposed then that the institution in which a person planned to take his degree serve as the agency to approve courses, regardless of where they were to be taken, that would be accepted in fulfillment of degree requirements. Another proposal was that the institutions jointly maintain a registrar in a central office who in co-operation with the various colleges and universities would approve programs and certify candidates when they had completed degree requirements. At that time there appeared to be no possibility of securing sufficient agreement among the institutions concerned to justify pursuing further the plans that were proposed.

More recently reports were made to the Committee on the Armed Forces Educational Program that have again led to a discussion of these same problems. At a meeting of the Committee in October, 1951 a resolution was passed which requested the American Council on Education to study the situation, "to discover if possible a set of sound principles which would be of assistance to those institutions called upon to provide educational opportunities for the Armed Forces

personnel during the years ahead."

Pursuant to this resolution, the American Council on Education

called a meeting on December 17, 1951 of representatives from the institutions that at that time were offering courses in military installations. Of the 131 institutions invited, 52 were represented; in addition there were representatives of 19 organizations, and 10 representatives from the Department of Defense. Just prior to this meeting a questionnaire had been sent to these institutions asking them for information about the special programs which they were offering in military installations.

The magnitude of the off-campus offerings for military personnel is indicated by an enrollment of 27,000 persons in nearly 1,000 courses in the 53 institutions whose reports were included in the summary. Obviously a full report from all institutions concerned would show much larger enrollments and course offerings. It should be noted that more than one-third of the 27,000 enrolled in courses in military installations were enrolled by two universities, one of which offered 300 courses and enrolled 8,671 persons; the other

offered 77 courses and enrolled 2,200.

The most frequently offered courses were in the humanities and the social sciences. In order of frequency they are: English, elementary and advanced; foreign languages—especially French, German and Italian; history; psychology and sociology-both general and specialized courses; and economics. In a number of installations, professional courses were also given; the two most frequently offered were business administration and engineering. Very few courses involving laboratory work were offered except in installations devoted primarily to research.

That an effort is made to maintain acceptable standards in these courses is indicated by the facts that most of the institutions offered only courses that were also given on their respective campuses, that insofar as possible regular staff members gave the courses, and that the size of classes and general plan of instruction followed fairly closely the pattern of campus courses. There were, however, a number of exceptions to these generalizations.

The library facilities varied widely, including access to university or public libraries, books loaned by university libraries or by professors, and the use of only basic texts. About 14 of the institutions

said that their library facilities were inadequate.

Generally the courses were offered on a credit basis although about half of the institutions reported that they did not accept these credits in fulfillment of residence requirements. Most of the institutions reported that they required a minimum of a year of residence for a degree, usually the senior year. The majority of the institutions said that they would accept transfer credit from other institutions for an undergraduate degree equivalent to three years if the work was done on a campus. For work done off the campus the prevailing policy was to accept a maximum of one year or less, though a considerable number said they would accept as much as two or three years.

These data help to identify some of the problems involved in maintaining academic standards while endeavoring to accommodate educational programs to special situations such as those described. Briefly restated these problems are:

- 1. The organization of a unified and coherent program leading to a degree.
- 2. The provision of sound educational counselling so that candidates for degrees may know whether or not the courses they are taking will apply on degree requirements.
- 3. The establishment of policies for the transfer of credits for off-campus courses. This involves the determination of the equivalency of courses among institutions.
- 4. The adjustment of residence requirements to meet the needs of students who move from one military installation to another and therefore from one institution to another.
- The employment of instructional personnel about whose competence there is no doubt.
- The maintenance of library and laboratory resources that provide opportunities equivalent to those provided on a college or university campus.

After having reviewed the data which I have summarized and the problems which I have stated, the conference which met under the auspices of the American Council on Education in December, 1951 adopted a set of resolutions which provided for the appointment of a committee to study the situation further and to recommend policies and procedures. The Council has moved slowly in this matter because it is necessary to move wisely. But steps are under way to carry out the provisions of the resolution.

While it is true that concessions must be made by both participating agencies in meeting the kind of situations with which they are confronted, no concessions should be so far-reaching as to jeopardize

the quality of education. Individuals should have no doubt about the value of the degrees which they receive. I am sure both military and civilian leaders want to avoid the impression that institutions are granting "phony" credit or depreciated degrees. With this in mind, we must move cautiously and review critically changes that are proposed for the purpose of meeting the new situations that arise.

In my opinion many of these problems could be solved were institutions engaged in this common enterprise to agree to accept performance in a comprehensive examination in fulfillment of academic requirements for a degree. Naturally this would necessitate acceptance of a well-standardized form of examination. Each institution would be free to set the minimum level of performance it would accept. The nature of the examination would have to be such that it included elements of basic or general education and of specialized knowledge. The Graduate Record Examination which is now being used quite extensively illustrates the possible form such an examination might take. An examination of this kind carefully prepared and standardized, and administered under proper conditions of security, should leave no doubt that qualitative standards are adequately safeguarded.

# Acceleration by Examination

### LEO A. HAAK

#### THE PROBLEM

ONE OF the serious and unsolved problems in higher education is how to deal with the superior student. Educators from foreign countries have questioned whether we have become so pre-occupied with the average students that we have forgotten the superior students, on whom we must depend for much of our future leadership.¹ It is desirable that these more able students be challenged so that they work up to the limit of their capacity, which all too often seems not to be the case in our schools.

A superior student is one who has more knowledge, more ability and more motivation than other students. He knows more about the subject when he begins to study it than other students in the group; he is able to learn more rapidly; and he takes more responsibility for his education. However, he need not be equally outstanding in each of these qualities in order to be a superior student.

How many superior students there are depends on where the dividing line is drawn. Thus, in an unpublished study by the Board of Examiners, Michigan State College, it was found that 2.5 per cent of all entering freshmen in the fall of 1948 could make a "C" or higher on the comprehensive examination in the general education course, Effective Living. During orientation week that year the students were divided at random into seven groups and each group was given the comprehensive examination used in the previous spring quarter in one of the seven courses in the Basic College.

However, the purpose of this article is not to determine the number of superior students in any group, but to consider how this problem of the superior student is solved. Possible solutions will be reviewed and one will be described in detail.

### POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Some people think there is no problem. They argue that exceptional students will get a good education under any circumstances; because

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Garrett, John, "Do American Schools Educate?" The Atlantic, February, 1953, pp. 68-70, 72.

such students read more carefully and extensively, think more deeply, and follow up on topics of interest to them. They argue that the educational environment is relatively unimportant and insist, conversely, that it is not possible to change the environment enough to make good students out of poor students. *Doing nothing* is one response

to this problem.

A second solution suggested is that each instructor hold his students responsible for working up to their full capacities. Thus, he expects more from the more able and less from the less able students. This may be possible in smaller schools in which the teacher knows students well and so can have differential expectations and standards for them. It should be added that with such a system all students who work up to their capacities fully are not given "A"; they also have to have "A" ability. In a large school it is practically impossible to deal with the more capable students in this way because instructors do not know their students well enough.

Enriched sections for the more capable students is a third solution of this educational problem. These sections, often called seminar sections, are characterized by leaving more responsibility to the student, by giving more attention to the historical and theoretical aspects of the subject, and by covering more material than is covered in the typical section. The pace in such classes is rapid and the students are

stimulated to do independent thinking.

A fourth possibility is to waive required elementary courses, provided that a student can prove his competence by examination in any course, or part of any course, not taken in class. He can then take advanced courses in place of waived courses so that he may in this way get an enriched education. Some have suggested that all entering students be given a battery of examinations covering all required areas so that any student can be excused from taking any required course or courses in which he is already above the accepted standards.

A fifth possibility is similar to the above, except that the student is given full credit for courses or parts of courses which he is able to pass by examination. Thus, he is able to progress more rapidly and either shorten his time in school or go further in a given period of time. Under this plan he can also go on to more advanced courses which present a greater challenge to him. Exceptional students might even complete a master's degree in four years. This is the plan accepted by Michigan State College when the Basic College was estab-

lished in 1944. In general, the organizing committee accepted the suggestions of Dr. Floyd Reeves, Educational Consultant to the college,<sup>2</sup> concerning the use of comprehensive examinations in a program of general education. He discussed the place of comprehensive examinations in a general education program as follows:<sup>3</sup>

If a student has a broad enough and a deep enough previous experience in one or more of the core areas, he should be given college credit . . . determined in operation by a Board of Examiners . . . who would take into consideration the various factors in high school record (such as grades and class standing), the aptitudes of the student as shown by the testing program, his intelligence quotient, and achievement tests . . .

The brilliant student, or one of advanced mental age, should be permitted to pass rapidly through his undergraduate work . . .

In the case of returning veterans, chronological age, plus intelligence, plus achievement . . . army (navy) training courses and experience . . . (should be generously evaluated in order to allow them to meet college requirements).

The wisdom of the Michigan State College decision or the relative merits of the five methods of dealing with superior students will not be discussed in this article. However, the major problems involved in putting this decision into practice will be analyzed; the development of consistent policies in the Department of Effective Living, one of the seven departments in the Basic College, will be traced in detail; and some suggestions will be made on the basis of experiences in this department. It should be added that each department in the Basic College offered one course only which, of necessity, was taught by a number of instructors. Special permission to take the comprehensive examination before completing the course in class was given to any student who submitted adequate evidence of his competence. If he made a grade of "C" or higher, he was given full credit for the course.

#### MAJOR ISSUES

If it is granted that acceleration by examination is desirable, there are still many difficulties to be worked out. Questions must be answered which involve significant issues in educational philosophy.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Also Professor of Administration, Department of Education, The University of Chicago.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Committee minutes, April 5, 1944.

1. What is evidence of superiority? Should students be permitted to attempt to accelerate on the basis of academic excellence only? Or should they also be required to give evidence that they have attained all objectives of the course including those which are not tested and graded? In other words, must the student demonstrate all-around superiority, or is academic excellence enough to justify granting special permission? But, will keeping these good students in the course result in their attaining all the course objectives? Conversely, should students who seem to exhibit in their own behavior the hoped-for outcomes of the course be given special permission, even if they are not particularly good students? Answers to these questions are necessary in order to determine what information should be submitted in support of an application for acceleration.

2. Who should decide who can attempt to accelerate? Should the decision be left up to the student solely, or to the department, or to someone outside of the department, such as the dean? If left up to the student, should he be free to attempt to accelerate if he wishes and without submitting evidence of his competence? Some have advocated this on the grounds that it provides the best way for a student to find out what he does not know. On the other hand the decision can be left up to the student in the sense that all who meet the announced minimum standards for acceleration decide whether to apply for special permission or not. If the decision is made by the department, should it be made by a committee or by the student's instructor?

- 3. How should standards be determined for credit by examination? Should the level of performance required for credit by examination be set by a group of specialists or indirectly by the students themselves? This is the argument of absolute vs. relative standards. If relative standards are used, should the scores of the special permission students be included in the distribution before or after grades are assigned? Another question is: Should students who are permitted to secure credit without taking all of the course in class be excused from the later, or from the earlier, parts of the course? It has been suggested that pre-tests could be used so that the more competent students could start at that point in the course for which they were prepared and thus all students would take the last part of each course.
- 4. How well should a student do in order to get credit by examination? In terms of the relative system only, should he do as well as

the students who were in the upper half, the upper third, the upper quartile, the upper 20 per cent, or the upper decile? The faculty may tend to think in terms of academic respectability and the administration in terms of economy, but both will agree that credit by examination should be available only for the few most capable students, otherwise it will be considered a form of academic inflation in which more credit is given for less work.

5. Should students who have been granted special permission be given further assistance by the staff? Should these students be expected to study on their own or should they be placed in separate sections and taught much as a seminar section?

### THE EXTENT OF ACCELERATION

Before considering the development of policies governing acceleration by examination in one department of the Basic College, it may be interesting to see how extensively the practice was used.

TABLE 1
REGISTRATION IN THE FIRST TERM OF EFFECTIVE LIVING, NUMBER OF COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATIONS TAKEN, NUMBER AND PROPORTION TAKEN BY SPECIAL PERMISSION, BY YEARS

Year	D	Comprehensive Examinations		
	Registration in First Term	Total	Taken by Special Permission	
			Number	Per Cent
1944-45	463	414	0	_
45-46	2,024	1,207	382	5
46-47	4,496	3,361	1,221	36
47-48 48-49	3,168	3,501	834	24 18
48-49	3,083	2,760	510	18
49-50	3,244	2,985	424	14
50-51	2,906	2,545	399	16
51	1,8954	5074	1894	5
	21,279	17,280	3,959	

During this seven-year period 3,959 students were given the opportunity to accelerate by taking an examination over a portion of the course not taken in class and more than 94 per cent succeeded in

<sup>\*</sup>Data for the fall quarter only, because the comprehensive examination system was modified after that quarter.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Special permission not possible during the full year.

securing advanced credit. Nearly 18 per cent of all students who registered for the course during this period accelerated by examination.

### DEVELOPMENT OF DEPARTMENTAL POLICIES

### The Basic College Plan

The provisions in the Basic College report, adopted by the faculty in May, 1944, established the principle of acceleration by examination and indicated some of the rules for procedure. It provided that:

There shall be established a Board of Examiners under a director responsible to the Dean of Students . . . (Section 13)

A comprehensive examination in each core course shall be offered . . . (Section 15)

These examinations shall be constructed and continually revised by the Board of Examiners in consultation with the teaching staff of the various courses . . . (Section 15)

Official grades (on an A, B, C, D, F, basis) and credits in the comprehensive core courses shall *depend entirely* on the comprehensive examinations... (Section 15)

Admission to the comprehensive examinations shall be limited to students who have completed three terms of the comprehensive course or are recommended by their counsellor as having made appropriate preparation. Such recommendation shall have the approval of the Dean of the Basic College . . . (Section 16)

Comprehensive examinations shall not be used as a means of acquiring double credit . . . (Section 17)<sup>6</sup>

However, it was necessary to discuss these provisions from time to time in the weekly meetings of the dean, the department heads, and the director of the Board of Examiners in order to work out common administrative details. After the second year each department was encouraged to develop a special permission system most appropriate for that particular department, subject to approval by the dean. Therefore, this is a report on the developments of the special permission system in one department only, the Department of Effective Living. However, it necessarily reflects certain changes in the whole Basic College.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> From the "Report of the Committee Appointed 'For Study and Recommendation' concerning Basic Education at Michigan State College." May, 1944. pp. 5-6.

### Academic Knowledge Made the Basis for Acceleration

After the discussion in the organizing committee, it is surprising that the Basic College report indicated that only students "having made adequate preparation" should be allowed to attempt to accelerate. When the responsibility for determining who should have the opportunity to take the comprehensive examination was turned over to the department in the fall of 1946, special permissions were based on the Basic College philosophy rather than on the letter of the report. Thus, all students who applied were interviewed individually to see if they could be presumed to have attained the hoped-for outcomes of the course.7 Later all applicants were required to file in writing such evidence as they thought relevant. Still later we asked them to respond to certain open-ended questions as well as to submit specific information. Some attention was given at first to evidence of behavior consistent with the course goals, but this proved so difficult that later we were satisfied if they had had experiences from which they could have been presumed to learn what they might learn in the course. It was recognized that a semi-technical vocabulary was used in the course, but it was assumed that students could learn this by reading the assigned material after they were granted special permission.

We sympathized with a student's desire to accelerate but believed that such acceleration had to be consistent with acceptable academic standards. By 1948, we defined academic standards as a "B" average for the group, with no student making less than a "C." We were concerned that, according to the Basic College plan, a student could get advanced credit by doing no better than the student who took the course and made the lowest "C." Since about 20 per cent of the students were assigned "D" or "F," he could even be in the lowest quartile.

In administering special permissions, we were disturbed by three groups of students. There were those who seemed to have in their own behavior, or had had the opportunity to acquire, the hoped-for out-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup> According to the "Report of the Committee Appointed 'For Study and Recommendation' concerning Basic Education at Michigan State College," the general objective of the course in the area of Effective Living was "to guide the student to a recognition of certain major values in more satisfying and healthful living, and to provide him with scientific and practical information and experience that are helpful in achieving these values." op. cit., Appendix p. 5.

comes of the course, yet were unable to do very well on the comprehensive examination. Secondly, there were students who rated very high on all academic tests but who lacked many of the personal characteristics which were desired outcomes of this course. Thirdly, there were still others who had both of the shortcomings identified above. They were neither good students nor were they students who had the desired personal characteristics. Nor had they had experiences which might have produced these characteristics. Yet, they insisted that they were certain that they could "pass the comp." In many cases they could and did pass with a low "C."

Faced with this problem, we decided that we should make academic proficiency the primary basis for special permission for acceleration. We believe that the comprehensive examinations as developed by the Board of Examiners at Michigan State College are excellent examinations. They measure more than knowledge, but, of necessity, they measure far less than the total outcomes of the course. Therefore, after 1949, in considering applications for special permission, we gave very little weight to the degree to which the student used the knowledge he had. Insofar as possible, we based special permission on academic performance, the same kind of academic performance as was measured and graded on the comprehensive examination.

### From Many Criteria for Special Permission to One

Even after we were no longer interested in whether the student exhibited in his behavior the objectives of the course, we still used multiple criteria for special permission. We believed that this procedure was necessary in order to find out how much he knew, how able he was as a student, and how willing he was to accept responsibility for his own education. Thus we took into account such information as age, length of time in military service, length of time overseas, record of acceleration in other Basic College courses, transfer from another school, change in major at M.S.C., orientation test scores, grade on course pre-tests, marital status, size of family (if married), grade point average, year in college, draft status, educational plans, and related courses taken. What we considered favorable on each of these variables need not be discussed here. It is evident that we gave some attention to need, but we rejected all applications which gave financial need or lack of interest in the course as a primary reason for wanting to accelerate. In a few cases we even required students who had taken related courses to accelerate so as to avoid

duplicate credit. In such cases, students were given credit only for that portion of the course taken in class.

Because of the difficulty of evaluating the evidence submitted by the student and the difficulty of interpreting our decision to him, we turned more and more to performance in the course as the simplest and most reliable basis for granting special permission. This was in line with the thinking in the whole Basic College. Thus, the revision of the examination system in the Basic College, approved in 1951 and put into operation in the winter quarter 1952,8 provided that

Any student in the first term who has an A grade at the time special permission requests are reviewed will, at his request, be granted permission to take the examinations for the remaining two terms . . . (Section 4.61)

Any student in the second term who has an A or B grade at the time special permission requests are reviewed and who had an A or B grade for the first term will, at his request, be granted permission to take the examination for the third term . . . (Section 4.62)

There is evidence to support the soundness of this change in policy. Dr. Harold Dahnke found that "while pre-course knowledge and ability was somewhat predictive of academic success, measures of personal adjustment, attitudes, interests, and values were not. 'Try-outs,' in the form of departmental examinations, improved prediction considerably." However, on the basis of pre- and post-tests, according to Dr. Dahnke, the students who took the course as a group gained in knowledge of the course content, improved in personal adjustment, became more friendly to minority groups. 10

## Acceleration a "Right" for Some

When we started out, we assumed that all students who wished special permission to take the comprehensive examination before finishing the course in class must petition for this privilege. We then considered each case and either granted the petition or rejected it. As time went on, we accepted the responsibility for defining and publishing the standards which the student had to attain in order to earn special permission. We also believed that it was up to us to explain

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> From "Policies and Procedures for Term-End Examinations and Term Grades in the Basic College," 1951.

Dahnke, Harold L., "Analysis of the Testing Program in the Department of Effective Living, Michigan State College," Ph.D. dissertation, Western Reserve University, 1950. p. 123.

<sup>10</sup> Dahnke, op. cit., p. 74.

the advantages and disadvantages of using special permission. But the responsibility for deciding whether it was wise to attempt to accelerate by examination was placed squarely on the student. It is evident in the above excerpt from the revised "Policies and Procedures" that this system became the accepted one.

However, in our department, while we were coming to recognize that certain students earned the right to special permission, we continued to recognize that there were other students who did not quite meet these specified standards but who deserved consideration in spite of that fact. In time, we called these the "Special special permissions" to distinguish them from the regular special permissions. We went through various stages in administering the "special specials." At first the head of the department passed on all such applications; then we established a special departmental committee for the purpose; but finally we left it up to each instructor to make such exceptions as he thought warranted. The revised system did not rule out this type of permission, for it specified only the *minimum* obligation of the department.

### The Standards Are Progressively Raised

As can be inferred from Table 1, the standards for special permissions have been progressively raised. In the fall of 1946, the first year the department handled special permissions, we had 3,176 enrolled in the course in contrast with 912 in the fall of 1945. In view of the increased enrollment and the desire of returned veterans to accelerate, it is not surprising that we were generous with special permissions. The following table is a more accurate way to measure the proportion permitted to accelerate.

TABLE 2
PROPORTION OF STUDENTS GRANTED SPECIAL PERMISSION AFTER
ONE TERM; AFTER TWO TERMS, FOR SELECTED YEARS

	Total Registration	No. of Special Permissions	Proportion Special Permission
After One Term (Basic 151)			
Fall, 1946	2608	318	12%
Fall, 1948	2102	110	5
Fall, 1950	2092	76	4
After Two Terms (Basic 152)			
Winter, 1947	1930	382	20%
Winter, 1949	1789	217	12
Winter, 1951	1810	125	7

Let us next examine the proportion of students who made A, B, C, and N (no grade) each year. It is evident from the following table that students made progressively better records, for the proportion who made "A" or "B" was 46, 49, 72, 77, and 77 per cent, respectively.

TABLE 3
GRADES MADE BY STUDENT WHO TOOK THE COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATION BY SPECIAL PERMISSION BY YEARS, 1946-51

V	Total	Proportion Who Made			
Year	Special Permission	Α	В	С	N (no grade)
1946-47	1221	8%	38%	48%	6%
	834	13	36	42	9
47-48 48-49	510	28	44	26	2
49-50	424	26	51	21	2
50-51	399	38	39	20	3

This improvement in performance cannot be accounted for in terms of changes in the passing grade. It was because the department was not as generous, as time went on, in granting permission to accelerate. This change in departmental policies was based on studies of the performance of students on the examination. As the veterans declined in number and the students became younger, we moved our standard up to the median and then to the "B" level. That is, as an administrative practice, we tried to restrict permission to students we believed would attain this standard. When the Policies and Procedures were revised for the Basic College, the "B" standard was accepted for all except a few older students. It provided that

Students who take an examination by special permission will usually receive grades of A, B, or N (no grade) . . . (Section 4.5)

That all departments in the Basic College except one changed their standards is evident from an inspection of the table on page 50.

## Pre-tests Used to Locate Early the More Capable

After the first year or so we concluded that the logic of the special permission system placed the burden on us to locate the superior student at the earliest possible moment. Therefore, we developed pretests which were given during the first week in the first term, as a preview of the course, as an inventory of the students' knowledge in the area, and as a device to locate superior students. In 1949-50, the Board of Examiners provided us with a representative half of a com-

TABLE 4

COMPARISON BETWEEN BASICS OF THE PROPORTION OF STUDENTS
WHO TOOK COMPREHENSIVES BY SPECIAL PERMISSION
FOR SELECTED YEARS

Basic Course	1946-47	1950-51
Written and Spoken English	26%	11%
Biological Science	26% 38	12
Physical Science	41	17
Social Science	33	14
Effective Living	36	16
History of Civilization	47	11
Literature and Fine Arts	4	2

prehensive examination which was suitable for this purpose. They also provided us with a distribution of scores so that we could interpret any student's score in terms of the performance of students who had taken the course. If a student made above the 90th percentile, we gave him special permission at once to take the comprehensive examination at the end of the quarter and suggested that he drop Effective Living and take some other course. If he made above the median but below the 90th percentile, we suggested that he enroll in our special section for students who were capable of studying the whole course in one term.

When we first gave a pre-test, we interpreted the scores in terms of percentile rank among those who took the examination as a pre-test, but abandoned this system because some of the students thought their high rank in the class at the beginning of the course indicated that they did not have much more to learn. When we interpreted their numerical scores in terms of performance of students who had taken the course, we ran into another objection. Many of the students, especially those with a low percentile rank, protested that the knowledge inventory, or pre-test, was a waste of time. Later, when we gave pre-tests on a voluntary basis, we encountered the same objection. Many low-ranking students who tried the pre-test and who, of course, did not qualify for immediate special permission or registration in the special section resented the system.

## Special Sections for Superior Students

We also worked on the development of special sections, but were never fully satisfied with our results. We had both a one-term special section and a special section covering the last two terms in the

course for students who did extremely well in the pre-test and in the course work of the first term. We tried various methods of instruction, including concentration on the major concepts, discussion of questions raised only by students, and the use of old examinations as a point of departure. In general, the students did exceptionally well on the comprehensive examinations but some of them were not particularly favorable to the course and some did not indicate in their behavior that they had attained many of the hoped-for outcomes of the course. Some staff members did not favor special sections under any circumstances. In fact, the students who were in the special sections were more favorable toward them than were the members of the department in general. However, we are convinced that as a group the students who accelerate are superior students. Van Der Jagt and Angell<sup>11</sup> found that students who accelerated in biological science, another one of the basic courses, did better in advanced biology courses than non-accelerating fellow students even when equated on the basis of previous background and achievement.

Of course, the purpose of acceleration should not be to save money but to make it possible for superior students to progress at a rate commensurate with their abilities. However, it is interesting to estimate the saving in staff time by the use of the special permission system. About 3,500 students accelerated in Effective Living in the seven years covered in this article. On the average, each student who accelerated did so by more than one quarter. We would have needed about one and one half more staff members in the department if these students had continued in class. Therefore, it is possible to give these superior students some staff time and still make considerable savings.

### SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the experience cited here, the following plan is proposed as a workable system for acceleration by examination—at least, as a starting point for the development of an adequate system.

- 1. That each student who wishes to attempt to accelerate present evidence of his superior (a) knowledge in the area covered by the course, (b) academic ability, and (c) motivation.
- 2. That an individual, responsible for the administration of special per-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Van Der Jagt, Ervin R. and Angell, George W., "Should Accelerated Students be Penalized by Admission Requirements?" *School and Society*, Vol. 71. No. 1841, pp. 198-200. April, 1950.

missions, consider the evidence, confer with the applicant, and make a decision.

- 3. That pre-tests be given in all courses in which acceleration is possible.
- 4. That special sections be available in all courses in which they are appropriate.
- 5. That advanced credit be given only if the student scores as high as the upper 10 per cent of those students who took the course in class.

The key to this system is the individual who is responsible for its administration. He is the dynamic figure in it. On the basis of his contacts with students and his experience with pre-tests and special sections we can expect him to make recommendations for the development of the system from time to time. He has the responsibility for interpreting the special permission system to faculty, students, and others. For example, the level of achievement required for advanced credit, in 5 above, was set high in order to minimize opposition in the beginning. Probably many teachers would advocate raising it while administrators would advocate that the standard be lowered. In time the administrator of special permissions might recommend that the minimum level for credit by examination be set at some other point, such as the 85th percentile or even lower.

Two other explanations are necessary. Pre-tests must be given in a one-term course if acceleration is to be possible, and in longer courses, if special sections are to be available. Secondly, the limitations of examinations are recognized, but we see no reason to wait for better examinations before adopting a special permission system. These examinations are now used in order to determine grades which are filed in the official records of the college. We believe acceleration by examination is sound and can be developed to become an accepted

and integral part of our college system.

# Recent University Trends in Sovietized Poland

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

The Fourth Partition of Poland. On September 1, 1938, Adolf Hitler told his Reichstag and the world that Nazi armored divisions had invaded Poland. Six years of Nazi bullying and threatening culminated in the first explosion of a war which changed the world. Great Britain and France were pledged to assist Poland in the event of German aggression. A few days later they did, but they failed to stop the dismemberment of Poland between Hitler and Stalin—the result of the famed Stalin-Hitler Pact signed on August 24, 1939. It is important to remember the signing of this pact due to the subsequent claims of Soviet Russia regarding who started World War II, and also Stalin's proclamations of pro-Slavic aims of

his government during and after World War II.

World War II cost Poland some 8,000,000 victims; 3,000,000 were murdered by the Nazis, some 2,000,000 were sent to forced labor camps in Germany, 1,600,000 were dispossessed and deported from Western Poland to the "Government General", and another million and a half people were deported to Soviet Russia where many of them died. The Polish schools were closed by the Nazis and only primary teaching permitted. The church suffered severely, with seven dioceses completely liquidated and ninety per cent of the clergy either imprisoned or exiled. All Polish cultural life was stamped out ruthlessly. To destroy the nation physically, the Nazis conducted a systematic campaign of biological extermination of the Polish people. But Poland never surrendered. The Polish armed forces carried on their country's struggle on the far-flung fronts of World War II. At home, the Polish home front led by the Directorate of Civilian Resistance kept up an underground warfare. The underground organized several hundreds of secondary schools, and in Warsaw there was even an underground university of a high academic standing.

But the liberated Poland suffered, even more so than Czechoslovakia, from the great shadow of the Soviet Union and the Russian

domination of Poland as a satellite state.1

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For more details, see: C. E. Black, "Soviet Policy in Eastern Europe," The

Education in "New" Poland. As in all satellite countries, Poland's spokesmen for the pro-Soviet government have claimed considerable accomplishments for the educational system tailored to the Marxist line.<sup>2</sup> There is no question that, since World War II, Poland's education has been undergoing a tremendous overhauling and expansion. The government has been building new schools, enlarging the curriculum, changing academic standards, and training new teachers. The proportion of students from worker and peasant families has

risen sharply. This same tendency applies to universities.

When viewing the administrative and organizational structure of Poland's education, we must remember that formal aspects are different from the actual operation of the system. The official claim is that "the present administrative system is essentially the same as that which existed before World War II. It is unified under the authority of the Minister of Education." It is true that the formalistic organization may be the same, but the administration is very, very different! Under the present pro-Soviet set-up, the Communist party controls the Minister of Education, and all branches of administration; his policies are handed down for him and by him all the way down to the least important school-house in Poland.

### THE FORMAL STRUCTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Poland has a long and noteworthy record in the field of higher education. When Poland won its freedom after World War I, her policy was to build more schools and to resume the old tradition of higher academic standing. This was accomplished, but Poland's universities lacked a popular base. Their students were recruited mostly from the middle classes.

War operations were still in progress when the Polish Committee of National Liberation issued its first Manifesto (1944). It included as one of its main objectives the reconstruction of higher education.

Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCLXIII (May,

<sup>1949),</sup> pp. 152-164.

<sup>2</sup> William Cary, Poland Struggles Forward (New York: Greenberg, 1949), pp. 167-174; Irving Brant, The New Poland (New York: International Universities Press, 1946). Poland's new educational structure is summarized in the pamphlets released by the Polish Research and Information Service (250 West 57 St., New York 19); Education in Poland (November, 1947); Higher Education (April, 1948); Vocational Education (April, 1949); Cultural Life in Poland (January, 1949).

In the first half of 1945, all universities that had existed in the prewar Poland were again in operation, although functioning under great difficulties. There was a dire shortage of classrooms, facilities, and textbooks.

Cracow, least touched by the war of all Polish cities, has continued its role as one of the most active cultural centers of the country. The new regime has added numerous other higher institutions to this

city, as well as to the system covering the whole country.

Since the most imperative demand created after World War II was the immediate functioning of the universities, no changes were immediately made in their organization. The 1946 reform set up preparatory university sources for those who, due to the war conditions, did not complete secondary schooling, or who had completed it so long ago that they could not pass the current university entrance examinations. All institutions of higher learning are tuition-free, although a small registration fee is required. All students must pass an entrance examination as graduates of the preparatory courses, or graduates of the regular secondary schools. The examination is of a general nature and covers the subjects taught in secondary schools, including foreign languages, history and civics. The institutions still maintain the division into "academic" and "non-academic" divisions which had existed before the war. Today Poland has over thirty schools (out of fifty) of the "academic" type. The academic and non-academic institutions are classified according to their sources of funds into government and private. The "academic" institutions aim to: (1) organize and pursue research; (2) prepare students for professional status in theoretical branches of knowledge; and (3) prepare students for high technical skills. The task of the "non-academic" institutions, on the other hand, is limited to training persons for technical skills; they grant certificates or professional diplomas but do not confer degrees. Normal schools and most higher agricultural schools fall into this category.3 The lowest degree conferred by Polish universities is the Master's degree. A university course leading to a Master's degree lasts four years, in every field—except that of medi-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Poland's engineering and physicians's degrees are equivalent to Master's degrees; just as in France, there are Polish "physicians" and "doctors of medicine." The first title usually applies to general practitioners. The B.A. degree would correspond to the diploma granted, for instance, to a two-year graduate in mechanical engineering.

cine, which lasts six years. In all fields a certain minimum of hours per week of lecture attendance is required; each student must also complete a given amount of seminar or laboratory credits. Examinations are given twice a year; before receiving his M.A. degree, the student must pass a final examination and present a thesis in the sub-

ject of his specialization.

A special department in the Ministry of Education administers the system of higher education, assisted by the Chief Council for Higher Education (formed in September, 1946) consisting of fifteen persons appointed by the President on the recommendation of the Minister of Education. The President or Rector of the "non-academic" institution is its director and is appointed for five years by the Minister of Education; the President is assisted by the School Senate, composed of the entire teaching staff. The President of an academic institution is recommended by the staff council which elects three members from among the staff of professors; these three are recommended for the university Presidency, and the names are submitted to the President of the Republic, who appoints the individual for a term of three years. The President represents this institution; he is the executor of decisions of the Senate; he is responsible for the proper functioning of the schools, and for its publications. Twice during the year he reports to the Senate concerning the state of the institution.

The academic Senate is composed of chairmen and vice-chairmen of the departments, representatives of professors and instructors (one representative for each ten). The Senate determines the budget and the needs of the institution, and checks details of the administration. In addition to the Senate there is also the newly created Staff Conference, which consists of the entire teaching and administrative staff and student representatives; it is an advice- and opinion-giving organ.

Departmental chairmen are elected for two years by a majority vote of the entire teaching staff of the given Department, and the election is confirmed by the Minister of Education; the Chairman represents his Department and carries out the decisions of the Departmental meetings. He is assisted by a vice-chairman elected in the same manner. A recent addition to the university structure is the post of the administrative director, filled by nomination of the Minister of Education, directly responsible to the President of the University.

Faculty members are appointed from a row of docents, selected by a process known as habilitation by a council of Professors of the fac-

ulty in which a docent wants to teach. Habilitation is also conducted by the Chief Council of Higher Education. The candidate must possess a Doctor's degree, but this requirement may be waived by the Chief Council when the applicants are outstanding scientists or educators. The applicant for habilitation must submit an habilitation thesis in his specialty of teaching, must satisfy the Council of Professors on his knowledge of the theme of his thesis in a public discussion, and must deliver an habilitation lecture. The majority decision of the Faculty Council must be confirmed by the Chief Council. Professorships may be filled by the individuals who have made outstanding contributions to learning; they are nominated by the President of the Republic at the recommendation of the Minister of Education, but the Minister must consult, before making his recommendation, the faculty of the School where a vacancy exists.

In 1947, there were 97,775 university students (as compared with a pre-war figure of 48,000), divided into (1) regularly matriculated students, (2) doctorants (those studying for a Doctor's degree), and (3) free auditors, those attending courses with no eligibility for taking examinations leading to diplomas or degrees. The government allows, as student aid, grants and scholarships, housing, medical aid, vacation homes, and textbooks for needy students; aid is also given by local and municipal governments. Most political parties have their student sections.

In 1946-47, Poland had 25 universities and other academic institutions, with 75,963 students, and 11 non-academic institutions, with 8,717 students. The largest numbers were enrolled, in descending scale, in "humanistic sciences", then in law, political and social sciences, commercial sciences, medicine, mathematics, and natural sciences. The smallest number specialized in mining and metallurgy (7), and theology and canon law (44). In 1951-52, there were 83 faculties in Poland: 8 universities (Warsaw, Cracow-the Jagiellonian University, Poznan, Wroclaw, renamed Bierut's University in 1952, Kopernik's University in Torun, Maria Curie Sklodowska's University in Lublin, Lódź University and the private Catholic University in Lublin-KUL), 6 polytechnical colleges, 3 superior schools for civil engineering, 10 evening schools for civil engineers, 10 medical science academies, 4 superior agricultural schools, 7 superior schools of music, 7 superior schools of plastic arts (painting and sculpture), 3 superior theatrical schools, one superior school of film art in Lodz,

4 superior schools of physical training, one superior school of law,

and 3 military academies.

In spite of the formation of so many higher institutions in all parts of Poland, education through correspondence has been spreading fast all over the country. At first, only teacher training courses were conducted in this manner, to enable graduates of courses lasting a few months only to complete their professional education. In 1951, however, correspondence courses were given by the School of Planning and of Statistics in Warsaw, by the Law Department of the Warsaw University, and by the Main School of Agriculture, Warsaw.

### THE IMITATION OF SOVIET MODELS

Ideological Drive. From the time of the "revolution" in 1945, even until 1948, the communist government showed a certain degree of hesitancy in alienating certain elements of the Polish intelligentsia by forcing the issue of Marxist instruction. It was largely left to the initiative of individual teachers and professors. But by 1949, all this was ended, and government protagonists—whether politicians or professors—were proclaiming "Marxism-Leninism" as the foundation of Polish education. The universities, long stigmatized as "nurseries of reaction," were being made the spearhead of activity. Student and professor groups of young natural scientists have been organized to propagate a Communist doctrine in their particular field. Radical changes had been quietly taking place for some time in regard to university appointments. With Lysenko genetics de rigeuer up to the Oder and Niesse boundary if not beyond, Polish natural science was being smartly stepped up to the party line.

The newly formed Polish Society of Marxist Scientists was directly affiliated to the New Roads, Communist Party organ and ideological exponent of Stalinism in Poland, for the purpose of facilitating supervision and seeing that the ideas of the natural scientist and Polithuro coincide. At the same time, a congress of teachers for the Warsaw area was used by government speakers to warn teachers that Marxism must be given its due place in the school curriculum. Vacation time in Polish schools in 1949 was used for further purging of teachers

suspected of lack of proper political loyalty.

A special treatment has been handed out to Poland's historians,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> "Poland: Education Tailored to Marxist Line," Christian Science Monitor (August 2, 1949).

since the Polish nationalistic attitude, rooted in the terrible historical experience of Poland (The Four Partitions!) has been running contrary to the pro-Soviet ideology imposed on the anti-Soviet Poles.

The Reorganization of Poland's Historians. Prior to the 7th Congress of Polish Historians, held at Wroclaw in September, 1948, Polish historiography was allowed to "develop freely." Up to that time, Polish scholars used the traditional nationalistic approach, so firmly grounded in Poland's whole history. But as the Communist régime in Poland increasingly consolidated its forces and Poland was being drawn ever more closely into the orbit of Soviet influence, Polish historiography came under heavy criticism. The government insisted that historiography should support the Communist régime, and give up its nationalistic and neo-Marxian approach. In fact, the Wroclaw Congress was organized by the Ministry of Education in order to introduce into Polish historiography the methods of dialectical and historical materialism. The standards for this change had already been set by Soviet historians, who had been busy for some time rewriting Polish history according to the basic tenets of Soviet internationalism and dialectical historical materialism. The standards for this change had already been set by Soviet historians, who had been busy for some time rewriting Polish history according to the basic tenets of Soviet internationalism and dialectical materialism.

Out of the Congress emerged the newly-formed Association of Marxist Historians, a pivotal element within the body of Polish historians, a small group of self-styled Marxist historians who responded to the official demand for a "progressive" science; this group assumed leadership with government prodding and Soviet briefing, and started to transform Polish historiography from a bourgeois into a Marxian "science". Three Soviet historians attended the Congress: P. Tretiakov, A. Sidorov, and I. Udal'tsov. At the same time the government sponsored the joint meeting of secondary history teachers with the Association. But the lukewarm response of most Polish historians—only 8 members having joined the Association of Marxist Historians—induced the Ministry of Education to allow only the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Elizabeth Valkenier, "Soviet Impact on Polish Post-war Historiography, 1946-1950," Journal of Central European Affairs, XI, 4 (January, 1952), pp. 372-396; O. Forst de Battaglia, "Polish Post-War Historiography," Eastern Review (Klagenfurt-Wine), I, 3-4 (October-December, 1948), pp. 22-43. See also: M. A. Zinoviev, Soviet Methods of Teaching History (Ann Arbor, Mich.: J. W. Edwards, 1952).

members of the Association to report to the meeting of history teachers. Historical journals were reorganized, scholars began to be carefully supervised, and new textbooks for schools and universities published. The Journals started to shift the emphasis of Polish historiography from West to East and to devote their pages to a critical revision of Polish history, aided by Marxist historiography of the Soviet Union, and produced a new periodization and evaluation of the past. The former objectivity of Polish historical schools was ridiculed, and it was stressed how much Polish historical writing would gain from studying the Soviet historical methods—with Stalin as the greatest theoretician in history. No allowance was made for an honest difference of opinion or for a reconciliation of the old with the new, and every discussion was based on the polarization of all historical writing into "antiquated" bourgeois, and "progressive" scientific Marxist works. But, at the same time, the journals had difficulty in securing enough articles and studies, and the Ministry started to use pressure to produce enough material.

The Association was directly affiliated to the New Roads, Communist Party organ and ideological exponent of Stalinism in Poland, in order to facilitate supervision and see that the ideas of the his-

torians and Politburo coincided.

An all-out drive by Poland's government to revamp education along Marxist lines was even more visibly under way following a visit to Moscow by Stanislaw Skezeszewski, Minister of Education, in 1949. In an address at a conference of school superintendents he commended the teachers for their spreading of Communist doctrines, but emphasized that there still appeared to be need for "reforms" in some places. Among them was the ancient Jagiellon University at Cracow which was getting special attention for "not progressing with the tempo of revolutionary changes". Only 23 per cent of the students there belonged to Communist organizations. The Communist Party of the Cracow district sent several groups of young Communists to the USSR for training, so that their activities among students could prove more fruitful. A special decree of the Ministry of Education provided for the formation of "School Youth Teams" in Polish professional, vocational, normal, and general education schools; these teams, consisting of the director of the school, 2 other school officials, and several students, were to keep watch over the political attitudes of both teachers and students. Regional youth conferences were taking place

all over Poland. The leaders in these were members of the Union of Polish Youth, the Polish counterpart of Komsomol (Soviet youth organization); present were also so-called "Political Instructors" whose business it is to whip up and support enthusiasm for the régime and its Moscow-inspired innovations. Medical and engineering courses were shortened because the régime seemed to be in a hurry to replace officials and employees of the older pre-war generation with its own indoctrinated younger men and women. To tighten its grip on the younger age group, the state had taken over the Polish Boy Scouts' organization; a new 8-point scout law was adopted, as a result of which Polish boys and girls are expected to become solidly integrated into the "front of builders of socialism".

But the Ministry of Education has not produced good enough results for the pro-Soviet masters. In the first days of 1950, the Ministry was reorganized to deal more effectively with the problem of realigning the reluctant scholars on the side of the régime. A new Ministry of Science and Higher Education, headed by Mrs. Krassowska, was formed; in February, she held a conference with the University Rectors and demanded that Polish learning be purged of the still rampant cosmopolitanism. In July, 1950, the Ministry called the First Congress of Polish Science, which stressed their alignment of science behind the fulfillment of the Six Year Plan, and the need to strengthen Poland's ties with the Soviet Union in the camp of peace and democracy.

In addition to submitting historians and others to official supervision, the government made substantial changes in the teaching of history. In the course of 1949, schools on all levels had their programs and textbooks changed; they all presented historical development in the light of the class struggle, and carefully left unmentioned all the points of friction in the history of Polish-Russian relations. The Polish Marxian historians visited Moscow in October, 1950, and consulted the members of the Soviet Institute of Slavic Studies on how to handle the problems of the history of Poland.

General directives for the future work of Polish historians were laid down in 1952 by Edward Ochab, Secretary General of the Central Committee of the Polish United Workers' (Communist) Party.<sup>6</sup> Ochab told a year-end Warsaw Congress of historians they should

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> "Polish History Due for Kremlin Slant," Christian Science Monitor, February 9, 1952.

take as the text for their work a declaration by Karl Marx's disciple Friedrich Engels that "Poland will be revolutionary, or there will be no Poland."

Polish history, added Ochab, must be written in such a way that "it helps President Bierut, the Polish United Workers' Party, and the nation as a whole to build socialism in the country." The party chief complained that the prewar history of Poland had been "to a great extent falsified to serve the ruling bourgeois clique." But he added that if they carefully studied the research work of Soviet historians, the Polish history-writers would "find it easy to unmask the anti-Polish rule of the Vatican and English-American imperialism." Ochab also said that the return of the western territories (the former German territory between the old Polish frontier and the Oder-Neisse line) had put a big task before the historians. They must write the history of these lands in the light of their fight against German imperialism. They must also write the history of the Silesian people and describe their struggle to shake off the German yoke. The Polish peasant must be pictured in his fight against landlords and foreign invaders, ending in victory under the leadership of the working class, aided by the forces of the Soviet revolution. But the historian must not stop at that. He must look beyond the borders, toward the brotherly nations of the Ukraine and Byelorussia, which had for centuries been oppressed by the Polish gentry. The modern Polish historian, turning westward, must seek inspiration in the fights of the old Polish kings under the Oder and the Baltic. The party leader summed up thus: "The party and a large part of the nation are aware that they cannot properly fight to bring socialism to Poland without a right knowledge of the country's past. The historian must prove that patriotism and internationalism can join forces. At the same time, he must expose the dangerous policy of social democracy, and of Gomulka (a Polish Titoist). He must expose cosmopolitan traitors and agents of the imperialists, and must stress the leading part played by the Soviet Union in its fight for peace against the gangsters under the sign of the dollar and the atom bomb."

At any rate, the Soviet ideologists had no easy task, for in the past they and the Russians did not get along. Three times in the 18th century and once in the 19th, the country was partitioned among Prussia, Russia, and Austria. It was only after World War I that Poland regained its independence. Then in 1939, after its short-lived resistance to Hitler's blitzkrieg, two powers again divided it up—Germany and the Soviet Union. An estimated 46 per cent of Poland's territory went to the Soviet Republics of the Ukraine and Byelorussia, though against this Poland advanced its western frontier by incorporating a good slice of prewar Germany. That is straight history which Polish historians had to slant to suit current politics. The fact that Poland is now a Communist state, closely linked with Russia, means that they

have to clean up the "errors" of the old history books.

Revision of Academic Requirements. With the introduction of the "aspirancy" system in academic studies, Poland's communist government took another step, in 1952, toward making Polish educational policy identical with that of the USSR. When a Polish student obtains a Master's degree, he starts to work not for a "doctorate," but for an "aspirancy." The decree of the government states: "To prepare for the degree (Master's) or the equivalent of those studies, those who have shown a love and aptitude for scientific work, may be accepted for aspirancy studies." This means that such applicants must have the degree of Master of Arts, Doctor of Medicine, or Master of Engineering. However, possession of one of these degrees does not mean that the applicant has to be accepted. The final decision rests with the executive committee of the Polish Academy of Sciences, or the Minister under whose authority the educational department concerned happens to be. If he is accepted, the student has two years of study with a stipend of 700 zlotys (\$175 at the official rate), a month, but he is not allowed to carry on any outside work except by permission of the appropriate Minister.

After acceptance, the student is assigned to a special Department or Institute, to which he is attached throughout the two years. The Rector of the University or the Director of the Institute then appoints one of the independent workers in that body as the student's responsible supervisor. The tutor maps out the course, which must be approved by the Dean or the Director. The plan is similar to that required for the Doctorate in the Western universities, but the contents of the course differ. The "Aspirant" must pass 3 examinations; one in dialectical materialism, another in his special field, and a third on the basic discipline in the branch he has chosen. In addition, he must demonstrate his proficiency in two foreign languages. On satisfactory completion of his studies, the student is granted the degree of Candidate of Sciences and is sent to work in a post assigned to him.

Another interesting pro-Soviet innovation in Poland is a system known as "transfer of credits" (dwustopniowsosc), whereby graduates of non-academic institutions may enter the university without loss of the credit earned in non-academic schools, and work toward an aca-

demic degree.

The Communist Party is the all-pervading influence in the whole system; it has its own social-educational commission which control the admissions to the higher institutions. Recruitment officers are attached to all schools, pass on their opinion about the graduates, and make them fill out individual forms of application; they are supervised by district (urban and borough) recruitment commissions. The central revocation (Odwolawcza) commission of the Ministry of Superior Education considers the cases of students who had been refused admission; the political background of the candidate is a major consideration for admission, and each candidate must submit to the recruitment commission a special certificate or a letter of recommendation either from the Union of Polish Youth (ZMP), from the Society for the Polish-Soviet Friendship (TPPR), or from a Communist organization.

Interestingly enough, the Communist régime has tightened up on the students' standards since 1951. All students must attend classes and pass examinations. An absence of one day without justification results in a reprimand; two day-absence results in a reprimand and the placing of the student's name on the blackboard; three days missed, a reprimand, mention recorded in personal record, name placed on the blackboard and, for those on scholarships, withholding of one month's pay; the unexcused absence of four days results in the previous steps in punishment in addition to the loss of four months' pay, or expulsion from the institution. Fines and punishments are decided by the disciplinary commission consisting of the Dean and two delegates of the respective Department, chosen from among Professors or assistant Professors. The Commission arranges a hearing and after having heard the student's explanation, considers the opinion of the delegate of the branch of the Union of Polish Students before making the final decision.7

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> For more details, see: National Committee for a Free Europe, *Poland in the Year 1951* (New York, 1952), pp. 103-108.

# The Admissions Office in Twenty-Eight Selected Colleges and Universities

E. M. GERRITZ AND ALFRED THOMAS, JR.

N JANUARY 14, 1952, Mr. Clyde Vroman, the chairman of the Committee on High School-College Relations of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, wrote to twenty-six registrars and admissions officers asking each to prepare a statement describing the admissions work in the institution represented and to exchange publications with other members of the committee. Early in 1952 the information regarding the philosophy and operation of the various offices of admission as well as the packet of admissions materials was exchanged. There followed some discussion of the committee's work at the annual meeting of the AACRAO in Washington in 1952. Following the Washington meeting two additional registrars and admissions officers were appointed to the Committee. Again, at the annual meeting in Minneapolis in the spring of 1953, the reports were briefly discussed. It was determined at that meeting that the information included in these reports should be summarized and prepared for publication in College and Univer-SITY. The present authors volunteered to do this.

In reviewing the growth and development of the admissions work in the colleges surveyed, the similarity of that growth is striking. It was noted that admission counsellors and field representatives existed in the private colleges previous to World War I. Their efforts were co-ordinated by an admissions officer or the college registrar during the late 1930's and the 1940's. Over the years, the state supported colleges have also centralized the admissions work which had previously been performed by the College Deans and faculties into an admissions office or into the existing registrar's office. In many instances, the functions of the two were included in one office under a single administrative head. In those institutions in which the functions of the registrar and admissions officer are not co-ordinate, the officials have apparently maintained as good working relationships as in those offices in which the functions are under one administrative

head.

Four administrative structures appear to exist at this time. The first has a separate Dean of Admissions and Records under whom there are two co-ordinate offices—one headed by the Registrar and the other by the Director of Admissions. In the second the two offices, namely the registrar or recorder and admissions officer are separate with the head of each reporting directly to top administration. The third finds the registrar or the admissions officer as the head of the office with the other officer being subordinate to him. The fourth, perhaps different in name only from the first, finds the registrar and admissions officer as one person, heading the office with assistants carrying on the functions of recording and admissions. Usually, one or more of the officers in each of these foregoing structures has faculty status.

It is easy to understand the necessity of centralizing the admissions work to avoid duplication of effort and confusion. It is also obvious that the increased college enrollment has been sufficient cause to differentiate the duties within registrars' offices and to enhance the work of admissions. Further, increased emphasis on selection of students based on research has necessitated the employment of an admissions person acquainted with that research, able to direct research and

to apply it.

The creation then in the last ten years of an admissions officer has been a gradual development caused by recent demands of college administration. His counterpart existed in registrars' offices, in the offices of deans or with college faculties. Certain rather major developments within the colleges themselves have caused his elevation

to the prominent place he holds today.

Just as the growth and development of the offices surveyed has been similar, so is the philosophy which underlies the functions of admissions offices. A composite statement of the philosophy follows: the Admissions Office is a service office dedicated, first, to the selection of students who have a reasonable chance of success in college or university work; second, to the individual students selected; third, to the faculty and the institution; and finally, to the secondary schools and other institutions of learning. The human relationships involved in the fulfillment of the stated philosophy are such that the public relations aspect of the office becomes a very important consideration.

One institution states that the persons employed in the Office of Admissions must be courteous, helpful and understanding in all transactions with the public, and always mindful that the office is the front door of the university; that it must, therefore, reflect the ideals for which the institution stands. The public referred to includes prospective, enrolled and previously enrolled students, superintendents, principals and secondary school teachers, parents of students, their relatives and friends, and the faculty members of the institution.

While it is difficult to separate the functions or services performed from the philosophy underlying those functions, an attempt will be made to list the most common services rendered. Additionally, some of the occasional responsibilities will be noted. The major services are: (1) To correspond with prospective students and others regarding the offerings of the institution and admission to the institution, (2) To process all applications for admission for freshmen, undergraduate transfer students, graduates and foreign students to most schools and colleges (Schools of Medicine are the usual exception). (3) To circulate bulletins and other printed material about the institution, (4) To maintain cordial working relationships with the secondary schools and with other institutions from which the students are accepted, (5) To encourage enrollment of qualified students whom the institution can serve well, (6) To evaluate the records of prospective students for admission and proper placement in appropriate curriculums, (7) To admit or deny admission to applicants within the limits established by the faculty and to acquire faculty decisions in cases requiring denial of admission, (8) To provide for pre-college counselling and guidance, (9) To provide for entrance examinations as well as procedures for atypical applicants, (10) To work closely with the registrar or recorder in matters relating to orientation, registration, student records and transfer, (11) To represent the institution as requested for high school-college and career days, (12) To review bulletins and other publications prepared for prospective students, (13) To participate in or be chairman of faculty committees dealing with problems of admission, recruitment, matriculation, publications for prospective students, evaluations, etc., (14) To conduct research appropriate to the function of the office, (15) To maintain adequate files, (16) To prepare estimates of anticipated enrollment, (17) To interpret the institution to new students and to disseminate useful information about admitted students to the faculty, (18) To supervise the evaluation of transcripts of new and transfer students, of foreign, out-of-state and state residents, (19) To determine the residence status for all students for

tuition purposes, (20) To evaluate military records for college credit, and (21) To supervise the annual high school senior day programs

on campus.

Additional services performed by some of the offices may include: (1) The administration of scholarships, (2) The administration of student counselling, and (3) The evaluation of transcripts and the admission of graduate students. Room scheduling and the scheduling of examinations are sometimes responsibilities of the director of admissions.

The head of the admissions office in the institutions surveyed has a variety of institutional committee assignments. He usually has responsibilities in the Executive Council, and in the faculty senate. Committees concerned with admission policies, residence, foreign students, scholarships, orientation of new students, publications, and relations with other educational institutions customarily include the director of admissions as a member and in many institutions he may be named chairman or secretary of the committee. This list does not presume to cover all the possible committee assignments as many of them result from the previous experience of the officer rather than the specific interests and needs of the office itself.

#### SUMMARY

The admissions work in the colleges and universities surveyed has become centralized in one office, sharing a co-ordinate function with the registrar or recorder. Fundamental causes for the origin of the office were increasing college enrollments and the necessity of selecting students on the basis of their academic background and aptitudes

for the college programs they plan to follow.

It is a service position giving aid to students, college faculty and administration, secondary schools and other institutions of learning. It depends for its existence upon the adherence to sound ethical practices fostering good public relations. Its major functions are in the areas of recruitment, interviewing, testing, counselling, evaluation and placement, orientation, research, and publication. Dependent upon the size of the institution and the administrative organization within the institution, the functions may be increased or decreased. For example, fringe responsibilities may be assigned to the admissions officer in one institution while the same responsibilities may be assigned to the registrar in another.

# An Appraisal of College and University Publications Used for Promotional Purposes

### WILLIAM GLASGOW BOWLING

"OH WAD some Power the giftie gie us," as Robert Burns once sang, "To see oursels as ithers see us!"

In harmony with the sentiment of this lyrical exclamation, we recently asked a number of secondary schools to appraise the guidance and informational materials most commonly used by an Office of Admissions in its work of interpreting the college or university it serves to prospective students and to officials of the secondary schools engaged in the work of pre-college counseling. Evidence was secured on the basis of a questionnaire which we sent to representative secondary schools in Missouri, Illinois, Tennessee, and Arkansas, with the heaviest concentration in Missouri and Illinois. In each instance, the questionnaire was addressed to the principal or headmaster, whose co-operation was requested in filling it in, or in referring it for answer to the appropriate member of his staff. The number of questionnaires thus distributed was 110, and the number returned was 77. In some instances, the questionnaire was answered by several persons in the same school, and their ratings did not always coincide. In a few instances, also, those answering did not check each of the categories. The total tallies reflect these minor variations.

It is my purpose here to discuss the results of this questionnaire insofar as the answers pertain to catalogues, bulletins of general information, college yearbooks or annuals, informative leaflets or folders, and scholarship posters and brochures. I shall also consider the basic principles which underlie certain of these publications. And I shall, when appropriate, direct the discussion rather specifically toward practices and procedures which we have found helpful in our own work at Washington University, in St. Louis.

To avoid misunderstanding, I might at the outset call to mind the reality that, administratively, institutions of higher learning are characterized more by a diversity of practices and procedures than by a uniformity. As with human beings, each college or university has its

distinct personality. Each college differs from all other colleges as each human being differs from all other human beings. Practices and procedures which are appropriate and workable for a college may not be desirable at all for a university. A state university, moreover, is different from a university that is privately endowed. However effective it may look on paper or diagram, an operational procedure or administrative structure of a particular institution can never, in toto or without changes of some sort, be effectively superimposed upon another. I mention these truisms at the outset, so as to forestall the assumption that the way we may do a particular thing is, willy-nilly, the way all others should do it.

#### CATALOGUES

The time-honored publication of all our institutions of higher learning is the catalogue. The diversity of practices and procedures characteristic of our colleges and universities is nowhere on more open display than in matters pertaining to the publications in this area. A college, for instance, may issue but a single catalogue. A university, however, may issue a separate catalogue or separate announcement for each of its degree-conferring divisions; and a university may also issue a general catalogue, which contains the distilled essence of its many separate catalogues or announcements. Nor is it customary for catalogues, like Cassius, to present "a lean and hungry look." A typical issue, for instance, of the "General Catalogue" of Harvard University was a succulent entree of some 900 pages, and a typical issue of its separate "Announcement of Courses of Instruction Offered by the Faculty of Arts and Sciences" had the well-fed look associated with its 275 pages.

As a general rule, catalogues are intended for many purposes and directed toward a varied audience. The reading public for which such publications are intended would include the enrolled students, their deans, and their faculty advisers; officers of government and instruction in other colleges and universities, particularly the registrars and admissions officers; prospective students and their parents; and high-school principals, counselors, and guidance directors. A distinction must, obviously, be made between the general catalogue and the average single catalogue or separate announcement. The general catalogue, for instance, may or may not contain a complete list of the courses of instruction; it usually does not; and if it does, it usually omits the course descriptions. Although the arrangement of the ma-

terial will vary, the average single catalogue or separate announcement may be expected to supply information on such basic topics as the following:

For the total audience: historical account of institution; control of institution, whether public, private, or denominational; composition of student body, whether co-educational, co-ordinate, men only, or women only; associations and accrediting agencies to which institution belongs; library and laboratory facilities; board of directors or trustees; officers of government and administration; officers of instruction; standing committees; summary of enrollment; summary of degrees conferred, either total number or number for the preceding year.

For the enrolled student as well as the prospective student: degrees offered, curricular outline of course requirements for the degrees as well as specific statement of grade requirements, departments of study, description of courses of instruction offered in those departments, definition of unit of credit, explanation of grading system, honors, prizes, or other academic awards, official statement of rules and regulations in general, academic calendar, registration dates and directions.

For the prospective student: admission requirements and procedures, expenses, living accommodations, scholarships, special student services, extracurricular activities, official statement of the university's responsibility to the student and the student's obligation to the university.

With this general information about catalogues in mind, let us proceed to an analysis of the answers supplied by the officials of the secondary schools in the catalogue section of our questionnaire on pre-college counseling materials. We requested that catalogues be rated from the point of view of helpfulness to the high-school counselor and from the point of view also of helpfulness to the student. The ratings were as follows:

As an aid to the high-school official engaged in the work of precollege counseling, the single catalogue of the average college was accorded 8 votes as excellent, 42 as good, 28 as fair, and 1 as poor. As an aid to high-school students in their quest for guidance relative to their further education, the single catalogue of the average college was accorded 3 votes as excellent, 19 as good, 44 as fair, and 14 as poor.

As an aid to the high-school counselor, the general catalogue of the average university was accorded 7 votes as excellent, 44 as good, 28 as fair, and 1 as poor. As an aid to the college-bound student, the general catalogue was accorded 4 votes as excellent, 18 as good, 43 as fair, and 14 as poor.

As an aid to the high-school counselor, the separate catalogue or separate announcement which a university usually publishes for each of its degree-conferring divisions was accorded 21 votes as excellent, 44 as good, 12 as fair, and 2 as poor. As an aid to the college-bound student, the separate catalogue or separate announcement was accorded 14 votes as excellent, 38 as good, 24 as fair, and 4 as poor.

The facts just presented are in need of no expansive interpretation. Suffice it here merely to say that the catalogue of the average college, as well as the general catalogue of the average university, is rated as more helpful to the counselor than to the prospective student, though neither variety is rated as impressively helpful to either group of readers. Of considerably more assistance to the student and counselor alike is the separate catalogue or announcement which universities usually issue for each of their degree-conferring divisions. But the inferences to be drawn from the tabulations themselves do not tell the whole story. Equally interesting and informative are the brief remarks which a number of those replying appended in support of their opinions. The following comments are typical of those we received about catalogues:

"Ninety-nine per cent of high-school graduates cannot interpret col-

lege catalogues."

"Catalogues tend to be too technical for the prospective student and his parents. Sometimes the stated policies do not agree with practice. Foreign language requirements are often misleading."

"Too much material of little interest to student and counselor at

beginning of catalogue."

"Some smaller colleges emphasize the social opportunities in their respective schools almost to the point of the ridiculous."

"Many catalogues apparently seek to advertise their institution rather

than to give information."

"My complaints against the catalogue are these: (a) They are frequently out of date or incomplete by the time they are issued. (b) They are difficult to wade through. (c) When issued separately, as by a university, they are incomplete in their information. At a particular university, for example, there are two programs in domestic science—one in the College of Liberal Arts and one in the College of Agriculture. If you have the bulletin of one school, you may not discover a thing about the program offered in the other school."

"From a counselor's view point, it takes too long to find the infor-

mation you need at your finger tips."

"Since a student does not enter law, medicine, etc., until after two or three years of college, specific courses desirable in high school are not listed for entrance, rather two or three years of college. The students want to know if three years of mathematics rather than two, chemistry and/or physics, Latin, and how much, are desirable for medicine, or law or some of the professions. They need more advice on foreign language. The students are looking for guidance to choose the high-school subjects that will be most helpful."

"The average college candidate usually finds it very difficult to know what courses he may select and which, if any, he must select in his

freshman year."

"College catalogues which describe courses—especially beyond freshman year—are not of much importance to students. I doubt if they are of much value to teachers."

"I think the explicit material in the separate catalogues and announcements is very effective. I like the suggested programs in various areas for freshmen. They give the counselor and student an excellent base."

It might at this juncture be appropriate to ask: What do we conclude about catalogues? It can, I believe, be said that catalogues are symbols of the dignity as well as the casualness of our institutions of higher learning. It is true that many of our catalogues are drearily written and poorly printed; and it is true that there are many ways in which they should be improved as to style of writing, arrangement of material, and format in general. But it has always been the assumption that those sufficiently interested to request a copy of the catalogue of a college or university knew how to read, and that they were more concerned with the information supplied by that document than by the latest display of finery in the costly field of the graphic arts. The complaints most commonly leveled against catalogues are, in general, not so much a criticism of the catalogues themselves as they are an indictment against the use of catalogues for purposes they can never adequately fill. The catalogue is not primarily a promotional publication, nor should it be narrowly directed toward a particular segment of its varied audience. The catalogue is, among other things, an announcement or a record, and it is also the chronicle and legal document of the institution concerned.

#### BULLETINS OF GENERAL INFORMATION

The publication in the catalogue area which received the highest rating in our survey of promotional materials was the bulletin of general information. The purpose of such a bulletin is to inform and explain. Its single function is to present factually, readably, and succinctly the essential story of the college or university concerned. It is intended primarily for prospective students and their parents and for the officials of the secondary schools engaged in the work of precollege counseling. The readers in this group constitute a homogeneous audience, since they are interested in the answers to essentially the same body of questions. In the replies to our questionnaire, the bulletin of general information was rated as follows:

As an aid to high-school officials engaged in the work of pre-college counseling, the bulletin of general information was accorded 20 votes as excellent, 47 as good, and 12 as fair. As an aid to high-school students in their quest for guidance relative to their further education, the bulletin of general information was accorded 17 votes as excellent, 43 as good, and 20 as fair.

There then followed the question: Would you say that, as a general rule, an attractive bulletin of general information would be more effective than the average catalogue as the prospective student's first introduction to the college or university concerned? The answers to this question

were as follows: 60 yes, 15 maybe, and 5 no.

Our bulletin of general information does us yeoman service. The Office of Admissions at Washington University was created in 1946, and we had no such general-utility publication for the first two years. During that period, however, we kept a careful record of the questions most frequently asked by prospective students and their parents and by high-school principals and counselors. When we wrote our bulletin of general information, we worked into its pages the answers to these questions of most common occurrence. In the annual revisions of this bulletin, we attempt to weave into the appropriate paragraphs the answers to all additional questions that are asked with any degree of regularity. It is our current estimate that our bulletin of general information answers more than three-fourths of the questions that prospective students and high-school counselors may have about our institution.

It is our contention at Washington University that the bulletin of general information, in addition to supplying a body of factual material, may also contain many of the essential features of the traditional viewbook. As a rule, viewbooks are expensive publications, and hence a luxury which many institutions are unable to afford. Our

general information bulletin for the academic year 1953-54 was a publication of 56 pages. In addition to telling the story of the University through the printed word, it also presented the story visually through some 36 carefully selected pictures. This publication was printed on a high quality of paper, and the price per copy was ap-

proximately 17 cents.

It is, among other things, this relatively low cost per copy which makes the general information bulletin particularly attractive. From the point of view of helpfulness to the student and counselor, it enjoyed a consistently higher rating than that of any of the catalogues, although it was not, it is true, rated as impressively higher than the separate catalogue or separate announcement which a university usually publishes for each of its degree-conferring divisions. But, as previously noted, the cost per copy for our bulletin of general information was but 17 cents, whereas, for a typical year, the cost per copy of our separate catalogue for the College of Liberal Arts was 45 cents, Engineering 43 cents, Retailing 35 cents, and for that of Architecture 30 cents. This differential in cost is apparent, but it becomes all the more considerable when we remember that there are many occasions when the general information bulletin may effectively serve in lieu of a complete set of the separate catalogues of the divisions which admit students as freshmen.

In an earlier paragraph, I gave utterance to the truism that colleges and universities differ from each other just as human beings differ the one from the other. Similarly, bulletins of general information will differ just as the institutions which they describe and explain differ among themselves. But the principles that guide and underlie such publications are relatively constant. It seems to me, therefore, that the criteria for the average bulletin of general information might be listed as follows:

1. A bulletin of general information should explain and inform; it should not glorify and extol.

2. It should tell the essential story of its school interestingly, unimpassionedly, and succinctly.

3. It should present its material in the order of greatest interest to its largest audience.

4. Since the bulletin may, in many instances, be the student's first introduction to the school concerned, it should be so written and printed as to make a good first impression.

5. It should, in size or proportion, be easy to carry and convenient to file or to place between conventional bookends; in other words, it should not be elongated in girth and stunted in height, for printed abnormalities are annoying to normal readers.

6. It should be attractively illustrated; for, as Alice asks: "What

is the use of a book without pictures?"

7. It should contain a postage-paid post card on which the interested reader may readily request additional publications.

8. Above all else, the bulletin of general information should reflect the dignity of the institution it describes.

#### COLLEGE YEARBOOKS OR ANNUALS

It is the practice of the students in many colleges and universities to issue a yearbook or annual, and it is the practice of many colleges and universities to send copies of this publication to a selected list of secondary schools. The cost per copy for such publications is high; at a special prepublication rate, the cost to us per copy for the Washington University *Hatchet* is \$3.50. With reference to college yearbooks or annuals, the question we posed to the secondary schools was this: How effective do you consider the conventional yearbook or annual in the influencing of the average high-school student as to the college or university he would most like to attend? To this question, the answers were as follows: of major influence, 8; of some influence, 22; of general interest, but of no real influence, 50. The following comments are among those given in support of the majority opinion:

"Students look at them but I doubt if any are persuaded by them." "It is nice to have these if a college has extras to get rid of, but I

doubt if these are a justifiable expenditure of funds."

"The student who selects a college for a personal or social reason would be influenced, but the majority who are interested in career preparation are left cold. Annuals are strictly supplemental and of little use alone."

"More money wasted here than colleges can afford. Students select schools on basis of reputation, the choices of older friends, and the advice or prejudice of family and some selected teachers."

#### INFORMATIVE LEAFLETS

It has been our experience, as well as that of a number of other institutions, that leaflets or folders are ideally suited for the explaining of the work of a department, of two or more related departments, or of an entire school, These publications are particularly effective for the explaining of a particular career or profession and for indicating how students may prepare themselves for that career or profession by study at the institution concerned. By the words "leaflet" or "folder," I mean a single sheet of small pages which are folded, but not stapled or stitched. The answers to our questionnaire revealed the high opinion in which such publications are held by officials in the secondary schools engaged in the work of pre-college counseling. Illustrated leaflets descriptive of the work a division or department offers as preparation for a career or profession were rated as follows:

As an aid to the high-school counselor, the leaflet was accorded 36 votes as excellent, 30 as good, 12 as fair, and 1 as poor. As an aid to the student in quest of information relative to his college plans, the career leaflet was accorded 32 votes as excellent, 35 as good, 11 as fair, and 1 as poor.

By reason of the low cost per copy, leaflets are ideal publications for bulk distribution, and we make considerable use of them. We have leaflets descriptive of the work of our divisions which admit students as freshmen, and we also have a certain number that are explanatory of the work of a department or related departments. In addition to these pieces, which are descriptive of educational opportunities in specific areas, we also have a general-utility leaflet with the title "Introduction to Washington University," the purpose of which is to tell the story of the University interestingly and compactly, and to serve as a sort of miniature bulletin of general information.

Since our leaflets are all planned for distribution in quantity, it is essential that the price per copy be kept in line with the intended volume of distribution. It is, in general, our policy not to clog our leaflets with names and dates, but rather to give them as dateless a utility as possible. Re-runs, then, may involve but a minimum of changes. It is also our policy to arrange with the printer to keep the type and cuts standing. In the long pull, such arrangements keep the average cost per copy to a minimum. It might further be noted of our leaflets that they are all designed to fit into a standard No. 10 envelope; and hence, when folded they all measure 4 x 9 inches. This uniformity in size makes for ease and economy in mailing.

As helpful as leaflets are, they should not be too infinite in their variety. The experienced rifleman is anxious to group his shots; he

knows there is something wrong when they scatter too widely. Similarly, the person planning the publicity for a college or university strives for a unity of effect in the various publications; he is aware of the danger that too many separate pieces may spread too thinly the essential and coherent message of the institution concerned. In this connection, leaflets on too many different subjects may well prove as undesirable as too few.

#### SCHOLARSHIP POSTERS

The poster calling attention to scholarship opportunities is another of the devices widely used by colleges and universities in the work of recommending themselves to the attention of prospective students. Attractively designed posters may be had at low cost. Our last supply, printed on white paper with an interplay of red and green copy, cost us slightly more than  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cents per poster. In connection with scholarship posters, the following questions on our survey brought forth the following answers:

Question. How effective do you consider posters for scholarship announcements? Answers. Excellent, 14; good, 33; fair, 27; poor, 5.

Question. Is it your practice to display all such posters on your bulletin boards? Answers. All, 39; a selected number, 39.

Question. How long are scholarship posters displayed on your bulletin boards? Answers. For a limited period only, 38; until deadline for filing of applications has passed, 39.

The answers to these questions on scholarship posters were nearly always accompanied by an explanatory note or constructive suggestion. Many of the remarks pertained to the methods used by the particular school in the bringing of scholarship information to the attention of the senior class; and among the methods most frequently mentioned were announcements in the daily bulletin, articles in the school paper, home room discussions, and the work of the counselor with individual students. Other of the remarks related more specifically to the fate of such posters at the hands of the secondary schools. The following comments are representative of the many we received on the use and effectiveness of posters calling attention to scholarship opportunities:

"We post those from most colleges for a limited time, but leave those in our vicinity through deadline. We file all posters and other scholarship information in note-books in the guidance office so that any interested student may look over scholarships offered. Notices are also

published in our daily bulletin."

"A special bulletin board is reserved for senior announcements of this kind. This practice has proved its worth to me by the number of students who come into the office to inquire about seeing the announcement on the bulletin board."

"New posters are given a few days in the most prominent position on the board. They are then moved to a position on top of the others

as new ones are posted."

"We summarize scholarship information in a mimeographed bulletin which is supplied to each senior in the upper third of the class. Scholarship posters are filed in alphabetical order in looseleaf notebooks. These are kept in the library for student use."

"A committee from the senior class presents the subject of scholarships to the class, and has the folders containing these posters and all

announcements to use in preparing this report."

"We study scholarships in social study classes and list opportunities

in school handbook."

"I write a descriptive item for a daily bulletin which is read in all home rooms. I do this for those scholarships which my experience has shown me will be of interest to our students. I call in certain students to call their attention to particular scholarship announcements."

#### SCHOLARSHIP BROCHURES

It was the majority opinion of those replying to our questionnaire that a brochure on scholarship information was a desirable and helpful supplement to the poster. A brochure of this sort was accorded 54 votes as excellent, 20 as good, and 5 as fair. Such a brochure would be expected to give detailed information relative to the financing of a college education: such as expenses of all sorts, opportunities for part-time employment, the availability of loan funds, and specific facts relative to the entire scholarship program.

#### WHERE DISPLAYED OR KEPT ON FILE

One need not be overly gifted with intellectual curiosity to wonder how the secondary schools display or keep on file the quantities of guidance and informational publications which our institutions of higher learning send them annually. Accordingly, we asked that the high schools indicate the rooms in which they made such materials available to their students. The replies were as follows: In office of college counselor or guidance director, 28; in library, 8; in office of counselor as well as in library, 18; in office of principal and that of counselor, 4; in office of principal and in library, 4; in office of principal, that of counselor, and in library, 4; in office of assistant principal, 1; in office of assistant principal and in library, 2; in office of assistant principal and that of counselor, 3; in office of assistant principal, that of counselor, and in library, 3; in office of assistant principal, in library, and in study hall, 1; on table in hallway, 1.

As these replies suggest, there is a diversity of practices and procedures among the high schools as to the locations in which they keep on file, or display, or bury, the guidance and informational materials sent to them so hopefully by the colleges and universities. But to discuss this subject in more detail would be to dip too deeply into the whole field of pre-college counseling as it is carried on in the secondary schools. It is always instructive, however, to know how readily available one's publications are for those who may wish to consult them.

#### CONCLUDING REMARKS

As stated at the outset, the purpose of this article was to see, as others see them, the college and university publications most widely used by offices of admissions in the work of interpreting their institutions to prospective students and to officials of the secondary schools engaged in the work of pre-college counseling. I have refrained from reference to such companion matters as an organized plan for the distribution of such materials, the number of copies to be sent to the secondary schools, or the stage in their high-school career when the college-bound students find such publications most helpful. It is not that such matters are of lesser concern and value; it is rather, that they are collectively worthy of a complete article in their own right.

## Recognition of Scholastic Achievement

GUY H. THOMPSON

Since the beginning of educational training it has always seemed desirable to give some recognition to the student who has been outstanding in his scholastic endeavors. The manner of honoring such students has taken many forms. In the colleges we have, as a whole, followed a procedure of recognizing those students who have distinguished themselves scholastically by conferring upon them certain types of honors. The types of honors have varied considerably, and the requirement for recognition has varied in even wider proportions than the types of honors granted.

Recently, Southwest Missouri State College made an attempt to determine the different types of honors granted and the requirement for such honors. A questionnaire was sent to three hundred thirty-two representative colleges in the United States representing all of the states in the Union (Table I), asking for some information as to what honors were granted and the requirement for attaining this honor.

A copy of the questionnaire is shown. (Table II)

Replies were received from three hundred thirteen of the three hundred thirty-two schools. In the replies received, one hundred nine of the schools replying used the Latin terms, cum laude, magna cum laude, summa cum laude. One hundred four schools used the English terms, honors, high honors, highest honors. Twenty-five schools used the terms, distinction, high distinction, highest distinction. There were forty-five schools that granted no honors. Twenty-nine schools granted individual medals, awards, scholarships, etc., and one questionnaire was incomplete. (Table III)

In those schools granting honors designated by the Latin terms, there were ninety-five using the three classifications, cum laude, magna cum laude, and summa cum laude. Nine of the schools used only two honors designating them as cum laude and magna cum laude. Two schools granted only magna cum laude and summa cum laude, and two schools granted only cum laude. One school granted only

cum laude and summa cum laude honors.

In those schools designating students graduating high scholastically using the English term, "honors," thirty-four schools granted the

TABLE I

State	No. Inquiries Sent	No. Replies Received	State	No. Inquiries Sent	No. Replies Received
Alabama	10	10	Montana	3	3
Arizona	4	4	Nebraska	6	6
Arkansas	7	6	Nevada	1	1
California	19	19	New Hampshire	4	4
Colorado	6	6	New Jersey	6	6
Connecticut	5	5	New Mexico	5	5
Delaware	1	1	New York	7	7
D.C.	4	4	North Carolina	8	7 8
Florida	5	4	North Dakota	3	3
Georgia	8	7	Ohio	12	11
Hawaii	1	1	Oklahoma	8	8
Idaho	2	2	Oregon	6	5
Illinois	13	II	Pennsylvania	14	13
Indiana	7	3	Rhode Island	3	3
Iowa	8	8	South Carolina	5	5
Kansas	10	10	South Dakota	3	3
Kentucky	7	7	Tennessee	7	6
Louisiana	8	6	Texas	15	14
Maine	4	4	Utah	4	4
Maryland	5	5	Vermont	2	2
Massachusetts	10	10	Virginia	6	6
Michigan	8	8	Washington	7	5
Minnesota	8	8	West Virginia	5	5
Mississippi	6	5	Wisconsin	9	9
Missouri	16	16	Wyoming	i	1

# TABLE II QUESTIONNAIRE

Do you confer any honors at graduation u	pon	st	ud	er	nts	3 7	wh	10	ha	V	2	di	sti	in	gu	ish	ne	d	th	en	186	lv	е8
scholastically?	hone	ors	?	(C	Cu	m	L	au	ide	е,	D	is	ti	nc	tic	on,	, !	Ho	on	or	8, 6	eto	:.)
••••••																							
What scholastic average is required of a						٠.																	
student to qualify for these honors?	•															٠.			• •				
								٠.															
This rating is based upon													•	• •									
Comments:																							
School							• •	٠.	٠.										• •				
Present Enrollment																							

distinction under honors, high honors, and highest honors. Thirty-four schools used the designation honors and high honors. Twenty-five schools used only the distinction of honors; ten schools granted honors and distinction; one school granted general honors and departmental honors.

In the twenty-five schools that designated the groups under the "distinction" classification, eight used the terms distinction, high distinction, and highest distinction. One school granted departmental honors, distinction, and great distinction. Eight schools granted only distinction and high distinction, and eight schools granted only distinction.

# TABLE III SUMMARY CONCERNING HONORS

SUMMARY CONCERNING HONORS
Inquiries Sent—332 Replies Received—313 95 schools grant Cum Laude, Magna Cum Laude, Summa Cum Laude 9 schools grant only Cum Laude and Magna Cum Laude 2 schools grant only Magna Cum Laude and Summa Cum Laude 2 schools grant only Cum Laude 1 school grants only Cum Laude and Summa Cum Laude
34 schools grant Honors, High Honors, Highest Honors 34 schools grant only Honors and High Honors 25 schools grant only Honors 10 schools grant Honors and Distinction 1 school grants General Honors and Departmental Honors
8 schools grant Distinction, High Distinction, Highest Distinction school grants Departmental Honors, Distinction, Great Distinction schools grant only Distinction and High Distinction schools grant only Distinction
45 schools grant no honors 29 schools grant individual medals, awards, scholarships, etc. 1 questionnaire was incomplete

The variation of credit points required for attaining these honors was great indeed. Under the plan of granting credit points where the basis is A equals 3, B equals 2, C equals 1, D equals 0, the variation ran from a credit point average of 2. for the lowest type of honor to a requirement of 2.76. The variation for the highest type of honor ran from a low of 2.4 to 3. The same variation exists in those schools basing their credit point averages on A equals 4, B equals 3, C equals 2, D equals 1, where the variation ran from a low of 3. for the lowest type of honor to 3.5, while the variation for the highest honor ran from 3. to a maximum of 4. (See Table IV)

TABLE IV
AVERAGES REQUIRED FOR HONORS

	No.		plan of t. Av.	Under 4-3-2-1	plan of Pt. Av.	
Honors	Schools Granting	Highest Av. Req.	Lowest Av. Req.	Highest Av. Req.	Lowest Av. Req.	Other
Cum Laude	95	2.6	2.	3.5	3.	
Magna Cum Laude Summa Cum Laude	95	2.75	2.3	3.8	3.2	
Cum Laude	9	2.76	2.			
Magna Cum Laude	9	3.	2.5			
Magna Cum Laude Summa Cum Laude	2 2	2.75	2.58			
Cum Laude	2	2.7	2.5			
Cum Laude Summa Cum Laude	I I	2.6				
		_				One based on
Honors	34	2.5	2.	3.5	3.	5-0 was 4.9,
High Honors	34	2.75	2.25	3.75	3.5	4.75, 4.5.
Highest Honors	34	3.	2.5	3.9	3.75	One based on 9.6-3 was 8.5, 7.5, 6.
Honors	34	2.5	2.	3.5	3.	
High Honors	34	2.8	2.4	3.8	3.5	
Honors	25	2.65	2.	3 · 5	3.	
Honors	10	2.5	2.	3.		One based on
Distinction	10	2.7	2.5	3.5		8-6-4-2 was 7. and 6.
General Honors	1			3.4		
Departmental Honors	1			3.8		
Distinction	8	2.25	2.	3.25	3.	
High Distinction	8	2.6	2.4	3.5	3.25	
Highest Distinction	8	2.85	2.6	3.8	3.5	
Departmental Honors	1	2.				
Distinction	1	2.				
Great Distinction	1	2.3				
Distinction	8	2.4	2.	3.		
High Distinction	8	2.75	2.5	3.5		
Distinction	8	2.5	2.	3.5	3.	

It is evident, therefore, that the disparity in requirements makes the recognition given somewhat meaningless when a student may graduate from institution A "Summa Cum Laude" with no higher grade point average than is required for the distinction "Cum Laude" at institution B.

It is hoped that this study may prompt colleges to re-evaluate their programs so that more uniformity may be obtained in the bestowing of recognition for scholastic attainment.

# The "Staying Power" and Rate of Progress of University of Wisconsin Freshmen'

### L. J. LINS AND HY PITT

I T CAN be expected, under normal conditions, that there will be rapid enrollment increases in institutions of higher education during the decade beginning in the early 1960's. These enrollment prospects call for long-range educational planning and thoughtful consideration of student and college characteristics contributing to the retention or withdrawal of students. Such planning and consideration may lead to revision of selection and recruitment programs and modification of admissions policies. Counseling and testing may play a larger part in effectively utilizing available facilities for higher education.

This report is intended to emphasize the need for careful research as to why students fail to complete their university or college programs. Presented herein is an analysis of retention and academic progress over a period of four years of a group of entering freshman students and a discussion of the differences between the students who complete all and those who complete only a part of the work toward a baccalaureate degree. It is hoped that the results, in terms of group expectations, are suggestive.

The group under study consists of 1,994 persons who enrolled as new freshmen at the University of Wisconsin, Madison campus, in September, 1948. All individuals were graduated from Wisconsin high schools and were residents of Wisconsin at the time of entrance. Of this group 1,344 were men, and 361 were veterans of World War II.

#### SEMESTERS REGISTERED

The freshmen, who entered in September, 1948, could have been registered eight academic semesters by June, 1952, and could have been graduated from a four-year course by that time. One notes from the third column of Table 1 that during this period 28.1 per cent of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This report is part of an extensive eight-year study of the group of students under consideration. The authors are indebted to Mrs. Britt-Marie McIrving and Mrs. Georgia Vavra, members of their staff, for their assistance.

the students were registered at the University of Wisconsin, Madison campus, for two semesters or less; that 38.3 per cent were registered all eight semesters; and that 29.8 per cent were graduated in four years or less.

The mean number of semesters registered was 5.2. Summer sessions are not included. It appears that a marked decline in registration occurs after the first two semesters. Further reference to this table will be made in the section "Three Selected Variables Associated with Semesters Registered."

The number of students of this group actually registered each

TABLE 1
TUDENTS BY NUMBER OF SEMESTERS REGISTERED

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY NUMBER OF SEMESTERS REGISTERED, SEPTEMBER 1948 TO JUNE 1952, AND MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THREE VARIABLES BY NUMBER OF SEMESTERS REGISTERED

Number of Semesters Registered		dents stered	Perce Ra	School entile ank	Exami Perce Ra	n Council nation entile ink	Uni Grad	Semester versity e-Point erage
	N	%	$\bar{x}$	σ	$\overline{x}$	σ	$\overline{x}$	σ
1	239	12.0	49.8	28.0	33.4	27.1	0.21	0.91
2	321	16.1	61.6	26.4	42.5	27.0	0.71	0.77
3	120	6.0	57.9	24.4	38.8	26.9	0.74	0.71
4	159	8.0	62.5	25.2	46.8	29.6	1.09	0.71
5	116	5.8	63.5	24.8	44.7	29.1	1.17	0.67
6	130	6.5	65.8	25.0	53.5	28.8	1.26	0.69
7 8	146	7.3	72.7	22.9	55.5	24.5	1.52	0.73
8	763	38.3	78.7	19.4	57.5	26.9	1.66	0.65
TOTAL	1994	100.0	67.9	25.5	49.3	28.6	1.21	0.85
Graduated by June 1952	595	29.8	79.9	19.5	59.1	26.5	1.77	0.61
Correlation coe number of sem and the indicate	esters re	gistered	.3	74	.2	88	.5	41

semester is shown in Table 2. The bottom row of this table indicates that 15 per cent of the original group failed to register for the second semester of the year of entrance. The greatest loss in registration occurred the first semester of 1949-50, which normally would be the beginning of the sophomore year for these students; 65.4 per cent of the entering group were registered at that time, as compared with 85.0 per cent the previous semester, a net loss of 19.6 per cent. The over-all loss after the first year, therefore, was 34.6 per cent of the

original group. The losses in registration thereafter are comparatively small from semester to semester, averaging 3.9 per cent. In the eighth semester only 46.1 per cent of the original group were registered.

Class progress, from semester to semester, also is shown in Table 2. During the first semester of 1949-50, when the group could be expected to be classified as sophomores, 65.4 per cent were registered; of those registered 83.8 per cent were classified as sophomores. During the first semester of 1950-51, when the group could be expected

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION BY CLASS FOR SEMESTER REGISTERED

					Fresh	men E	ntering	Septe	mber 19	948 W	ho Regi	isterec	1:		
Classified	Sept.	19	48-49		194	9-50		1	199	0-51			195	1-52	
as:	1948	Se	cond nester %		irst nester %		cond nester %		irst nester %		cond nester %		rirst nester %		cond nester %
Freshmen Sophomores Juniors Seniors Graduates*	1994	1694	100.0	1093	16.2 83.8	195 1047 3	15.7 84.1 0.2	284 812 8	3.9 24.7 70.7 0.7	30 232 807 11	2.8 21.5 74.7 1.0	6 34 224 703 9	0.6 3.5 23.0 72.0 0.9	751 142 751	0.6 2.0 15.4 80.5
TOTAL	1994	1694	100.0	1305	100.0	1245	100.0	1149	100.0	1080	100.0	976	100.0	920	100.0
Per cent of Entering Freshmen	100.0	1	85.0		55.4		52.4	,	7.6		74.3		<b>48.9</b>		16.1

<sup>\*</sup> Includes persons in law or medicine not registered also as undergraduates.

to become juniors, 57.6 per cent were registered; of these students 71.4 per cent were classified as juniors or seniors. During the first semester of 1951-52, when the group could be expected to become seniors, 48.9 per cent were registered; of these students 72.9 per cent were classified as seniors or were registered solely in the graduate, law, or medical schools. During the eighth semester (second semester of 1951-52), at the end of which time the group normally might be expected to be graduated from a four-year course, 46.1 per cent were registered; of these students 82.0 per cent were classified as seniors or were registered solely as graduates, law, or medical students.

Not shown in Table 2 are the numbers of students who achieved a classification at some time during the year in which it was to be expected. A total of 870 students, 43.6 per cent of the original group, attained a junior or higher classification at some time during the third year (1950-51) since entrance; and 808 students, 40.5 per cent of the original group, had a senior or higher classification or were graduated during the fourth year (1951-52) since entrance. It was mentioned

earlier that 29.8 per cent of the group were graduated by the end of the eighth semester.

The foregoing points out that there is a loss in the percentage of the entering group registered during each successive semester. More striking, perhaps, is the registration for consecutive semesters as presented in Table 3. Although 46.1 per cent of the group were registered during the eighth semester after original entrance, only 38.3 per cent of that total entrance group had been registered for all eight

Year	Consecutive Semesters Registered From September 1948	N	Per cent of original group	Number who did not continue	Per cent who did not continue
1948-49	One	1994	100.0	300	15.0
	Two	1694	85.0	426	25.1
1949-50	Three	1268	63.6	106	8.4
	Four	1162	58.3	156	13.4
1950-51	Five	1006	50.5	78 98	7.8
	Six	928	46.5	98	10.6
1951-52	Seven	830	41.6	67	8.1
	Eight	763	38.3		

semesters; that is, 82.9 per cent of the students who were registered the eighth semester had been registered for all seven previous semesters. Twenty-five per cent of those who were registered for two consecutive semesters failed to register the third semester. About half of the group registered for five consecutive semesters. That more students fail to register after the second semester than after the first semester of any particular year, as shown in the last two columns of Table 3, undoubtedly reflects to a degree administrative action relative to poor scholastic attainment. Another influence may be the fact that academic years are separated, for most students, by a three-month vacation period during which time students may seek permanent employment or may decide to enroll at other colleges or universities.

It is apparent from these tables that more students withdraw at the end of the freshman year than at any other time and that the next greatest loss is after the first semester of the freshman year. Students who successfully complete their first year's work, therefore, and who embark upon their second year of study during the first semester of the succeeding year appear to have a reasonable chance of getting a good portion of their course work completed by the end of the eighth semester after entrance.

It should be clarified at this point that all of the students in this study did not pursue all of their course work at the University of Wisconsin, Madison campus, nor during regular academic semesters only. In determining the number of semesters that a student was registered, summer sessions at the University were not considered. For example, among the 595 students who were graduated by June, 1952, 543 completed all of their undergraduate work at the University; among the latter group 188 were graduated with the aid of some summer session work. There were, therefore, some students who withdrew early in their college course, attended some other college or university, and returned several semesters later to continue or complete their work. Such students would, of course, be among those who registered relatively few semesters.

Some of the original group of freshmen withdrew to attend another college or university and may not have returned to the University. Some of these persons may have made normal progress in the college to which they transferred and may have been graduated from that college by June, 1952. No study has been made of eventual success in graduation of this group. However, questionnaires were sent to 736 students who entered the University as freshmen during the first semester of 1948-49 and who withdrew during or at the end of that academic year. This group of withdrawals probably is not comparable, in a strict sense, to the group under consideration in this report since non-residents of the State of Wisconsin were also included among those to whom questionnaires were sent.

Of the students to whom questionnaires were sent, 397, or 53.9 per cent, returned them. According to the responses, by October, 1950, 9.6 per cent had been re-enrolled at the University, Madison campus; 3.3 per cent had been registered at one of the extension centers of the University; 20.4 per cent had been registered at another university or college; and 5.0 per cent had been registered at a business, trade, or vocational school. A total, therefore, of 38.3 per cent of the withdrawals who returned the questionnaire had been registered at some college or school subsequent to withdrawal and prior to October, 1950. An additional 58.2 per cent had accepted employment, including 3.8 per cent who were women and who married and worked only as housewives.

# THREE SELECTED VARIABLES ASSOCIATED WITH SEMESTERS REGISTERED

The extent of linear association between the number of semesters registered and three variables, taken separately, is shown in Table 1. The variables are: (1) percentile rank in the high school class with which graduated, (2) percentile rank on the American Council Psychological Examination (1947 edition), and (3) first semester university grade-point average.

### High School Rank

High school ranks were available for 1,949 students of this entering group. In general, the higher the percentile rank a student had in his high school graduating class, the more semesters he was registered during the eight-semester period. The product-moment coefficient of correlation between these two variates is .374, which is significantly different from zero at the .001 probability (less than one per cent) level. The mean percentile rank is 67.9 and ranges from 49.8 for students registered only one semester to 78.7 for students registered all eight semesters. The persons graduated in four years averaged 79.9.

### American Council Psychological Examination

Scores on this examination, given at the time of entrance as freshmen, were available for 1,904 students. The percentile ranks<sup>2</sup> correlate .288 with the number of semesters registered. This coefficient is significantly different from zero at the .001 probability level. The mean percentile rank is 49.3 and ranges from 33.4 for students who were registered only one semester to 57.5 for students who were registered all eight semesters. The superiority of the graduated group is again evident; their mean rank is 59.1.

The mean rank for students who were registered only one semester is significantly different at the .001 probability level from the means for all other groups, except for the three-semester group. It is unlikely, therefore, that students on the average of somewhat less than mediocre intelligence, as measured by this examination, will remain

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Based upon local norms. The mean rank for the entering freshmen should be 50; however, the group under study is select, being restricted to residents of Wisconsin and graduates of Wisconsin high schools. Due to greater selectivity in admission, non-resident students tend to score, on the average, above the fiftieth percentile.

in school for an appreciable length of time. However, the rule is not hard and fast. Among the 595 students who were graduated in four years or less, there were 106, or 17.8 per cent, who ranked below the thirtieth percentile on this examination. Clearly a low score on this examination did not preclude a successful college career, in terms of completion, for some students in this group.

### First Semester Grade-Point Average

This measure was available for 1,885 students, indicating that this number, or 94.5 per cent of the entering group, completed the first semester of the year of entrance. This variate also correlated positively with the number of semesters registered. The correlation coefficient of .541 is significantly different from zero at the .001 prob-

ability level.

It appears that this measure, obtainable so early in the student's college career, predicts the group's academic future quite well. The mean grade-point average for students who were registered only one semester is significantly different at the .001 probability level from the means for all other groups. It is highly probable, therefore, that students who do quite poorly their first semester at the University will not continue at this University for any great length of time. On the other hand, a relatively high first semester average indicates that the student will continue his college career with the probability of graduation in four years becoming greater with increasing grade-point average.

Once again some caution should be exercised in the interpretation of these data. Among the 595 students who were graduated in four years or less, there were 50, or 8.4 per cent, who earned less than a "C" average, a grade-point average of less than 1.00, the first

semester.

#### SCHOLASTIC ACTIONS

Scholastic actions at the University of Wisconsin, which result from low university grades and which may be taken by the various college administrations after a student enters, range in severity from simple probation to dropped. The distribution according to the most severe scholastic action taken against the student as of November 30, 1951, is presented in Table 4. Probationary action taken after a student's entrance, as used here, is not to be confused with probation

DISTRIBUTION BY MOST SEVERE SCHOLASTIC ACTION INCURRED AS OF NOVEMBER 30, 1951 TABLE 4

						Most Severe Scholastic Action	vere Scl	holastic	Action					Dro	Dropped	
Semesters Remistered	Total	Te.	No A	No Action	Probation	ation	Stri	Strict	Prob	Final	Drog	Dropped	Retu	Returned	Retu	Not Returned
no transfer of	z	%	z	%	Z	%	Z	%	Z	%	z	%	z	%	z	%
н	239	12.0	140	13.9	21	6.3	15	10.9	7	5.9	\$6	13.8	1	1	\$6	23.0
a	321	1.91	8	9.5	20	1.51	27	19.7	25	21.2	127	31.3	19	11.7	108	44.3
6	120	0.9	33	3.3	61	5.7	7	5.1	00	8.9	53	13.0	31	1.61	22	6
4	159	8.0	20	5.0	24	7.3	13	5.6	00	8.8	9	15.8	27	16.7	37	15.3
*	911	2.8	45	4.5	18	5.4	01	7.3	0	. s.	33	8.1	82	17.3	5	4
9	130	6.5	4	4.6	22	6.7	13	00	15	12.7	35	8.6	21	13.0	14	5.
7	146	7.3	&	8.0	56	4.6	7	5.1	12	10.2	21	5.5	61	11.7	d	°.
∞	763	38.3	\$16	51.5	151	45.6	46	33.6	33	27.9	11	4.5	17	10.5	1	1
TOTAL	1994	100.0	1002	100.0	331	100.0	137	100.0	118	100.0	406	100.0	162	100.0	244	100.0
Per cent of Entering Freshmen	100.0	0.0	3	50.2	1	9.91	6.	6.9	*	5.9	26	20.4	80	8.1	н	12.3
Number and Per cent Graduated	•	\$95		459		79		33		8		4		+		1
by June 1952	100	0.0	7	7.1	1	3.3	2	.5	60	4.	0.7	.7	0	0.7		1

as an admission status. Students who were admitted on probation are included in this table but are treated as a separate group later in this

report.

A large number, 49.8 per cent, of the original group had some kind of scholastic action taken against them. Of the original group, 20.4 per cent were dropped by the University at some time because of scholastic difficulties; of those who were dropped, 39.9 per cent returned within four years after entrance to resume their studies. Among the students who were graduated within four years, 77.1 per cent had no action taken against them during the eight semesters.

Again it is evident that the end of the second semester of the freshman year leaves a sizable group of academic casualties (last four columns of Table 4). Of the students who were dropped and who did not return, 67.3 per cent were registered for two semesters or less. Of the students who were dropped and returned, 19.1 per cent, which represents the largest group in terms of semesters registered, were registered only three semesters, indicating that the original drop action occurred during or at the end of the freshman year.

#### STUDENTS ADMITTED AS FRESHMEN ON PROBATION

A total of 197 students, or almost 10 per cent of the original group of 1,994 freshmen, were admitted on probation primarily because of low grades in high school. Might one expect that these students would experience similar scholastic difficulties in college? How do they compare with the 1,797 students who were not admitted on probation?

The high school achievement of the probation students as a group gives some indication of possible academic difficulties in college. The mean rank of these students in their high school graduating classes was 18.9, as compared with 73.3 for the non-probation group. In addition, their mean rank of 29.5 on the American Council Psychological Examination is considerably lower than the mean rank of 51.3 for the non-probation group. For the 171 probation students who completed the first semester, the mean first semester university gradepoint average was 0.38, as compared with 1.30 for the non-probation group. The greatest loss in registration among the probation group occurred after the first semester; among the non-probation group, the greatest loss occurred after two semesters, the end of the first academic

year. These data indicate that students admitted on probation begin to have serious academic difficulties almost immediately.

In terms of "staying power" and class progress from semester to semester, the probation students were inferior to the non-probation students. They were registered an average of 3.3 semesters during this eight-semester period, as compared with 5.4 semesters for the non-probation students. Over 53 per cent of the probation students were registered for two semesters or less, while the comparable figure for the non-probation group was 25.3 per cent. Only 38.6 per cent were registered the first semester of 1949-50, when the group could be expected to have been classified as sophomores; and only 47.4 per cent of these latter students achieved this expected classification at that time. In the non-probation group these percentages were 68.4 and 86.0, respectively.

These differences in percentages who registered each semester and who achieved the expected classification continue to be as striking during the entire eight semesters. During the eighth semester only 17.8 per cent of the probation students were registered, as compared with 49.2 per cent of the non-probation students. Only 16 probation students were graduated in four years, representing 8.1 per cent of the group; while 32.2 per cent of the non-probation group were graduated in four years. Of the probation students 47.7 per cent were dropped by the University at some time because of scholastic difficulties; for the non-probation group this percentage was only 17.4.

It is clear from the data that freshmen admitted on probation to the University of Wisconsin experience more than ordinary difficulty in their course work. They appear to be poor academic risks, as a group.

On the basis of these comparisons one might be justified in raising some question as to the advisability of admitting such students to the University. These observations suggest that there is need for careful considerations of admissions policies should it be necessary in the future, because of lack of facilities, to accept only those freshmen who, on the basis of entrance tests and high school achievement, give some promise of reasonable academic success. Adequate measuring instruments should be designed for pre-college forecasting and guidance to enable the University faculty and administration and the entering student to plan intelligently a program designed to fit best the needs of the individual student.

#### ACADEMIC DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN

Analyses have been presented without regard to sex. There may be differences between men and women in the total entering freshman group, the group admitted on probation, or the group graduated in four years or less. Differences may occur in all groups when considering the variables of rank in high school with which graduated, American Council Psychological percentile rank, and first semester university grade-point average. The means of these measures for men and women, together with significance levels of the differences, are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN ON THREE SELECTED VARIABLES\*

Criterion	N	Men X	σ	N	Women X	σ	Per cent level of significance in comparing Means†
Total group  No. of semesters registered High school %ile rank American Council %ile rank First semester G.P.A.	1344 1344 1303 1279 1255	(67.4%) 5.19 63.7 50.1 1.13	2.74 26.1 29.3 0.86	650 650 646 625 630	(32.6%) 5.21 76.5 47.5 1.38	2.72 21.8 27.1 0.82	87.3 0.0 6.0 0.0
Admitted on probation No. of semesters registered High school %ile rank American Council %ile rank First semester G.P.A.	163 163 160 152 139	(82.7%) 3.39 18.6 31.1 0.37	2.46 9.8 26.4 0.75	34 34 34 29 32	(17.3%) 3.06 20.7 21.1 0.44	2.23 8.7 19.7 0.78	47.2 23.8 5.4 63.8
Graduated in four years High school %ile rank American Council %ile rank First semester G.P.A.	354 347 343 354	(59.5%) 75.9 61.3 1.74	20.0 26.8 0.61	241 241 237 240	(40.5%) 85.8 55.9 1.82	15.4 25.0 0.60	0.0 1.6 11.6

<sup>\*</sup> Numbers in parentheses represent the percentage division of each group by sex.
† The t-test (Student's t) was used to test the significance of the differences between means.

The incoming freshman women on the average ranked considerably higher in their high school graduating class than did their male counterparts. Relatively fewer of them were admitted on probation; and, as a total group, they earned significantly higher first semester university grade-point averages than did the men. The chi-square test was used to test association between sex and graduation. It was found that the relative number of graduates among the women was significantly higher than that among the men (.001 probability level).

If the distribution presented in Table 2 is divided by sex, it appears that a substantially greater percentage of the women who were registered each semester achieved the expected classification. For example, 83.8 per cent of the women who were registered the first semester of

1951-52 were classified as seniors, the expected classification; while the comparable figure for the men was 67.9 per cent. Insofar as scholastic actions are concerned, the superiority of the women is again evident. Among the entering freshman women, 40.9 per cent incurred some kind of scholastic action; while the comparable figure for the men was 54.0 per cent. It appears that women, as a group, are more successful in making normal progress than are men.

There are differences, however, which are not as clear-cut, or which are not significant. The difference between mean percentile ranks on the American Council Psychological Examination is significant at the 6.0 per cent level, suggesting that chance should not be ruled out as a determining factor, Table 5. Among the students who were graduated, however, this difference is significant at the 1.6 per cent level. There is apparently little difference in the mean number of semesters registered during the eight-semester period.

One year after entrance as freshmen, 67.5 per cent of the women were registered as compared with 64.4 per cent of the men; but two years and three years after entrance as freshmen, the percentages of men exceeded those of women until in the eighth semester they were substantially the same: 46.0 per cent of the women and 46.2 per cent of the men. It appears, therefore, that there is little difference between the sexes with regard to "casualties" over the eight semesters since entrance as freshmen; although the women as a group are more successful academically.

DeRidder<sup>3</sup> reviewed studies which arrived at results similar to those reported here. Several conclusions were noted: Women showed a distinct superiority in college grades over the men, although the differences in college-aptitude-test results were not as marked. During their first semester relatively more of the men than women incurred failing grades. Higher percentages of men than women were dropped because of poor grades.

In his study of 1,071 University of Michigan students who were graduated in 1948 from the College of Literature, Science, and the Arts, DeRidder noted that 20 per cent had been placed on academic probation one or more times. In comparison, Table 4 shows that 22.9 per cent of the 595 students who were graduated in four years or less had some kind of scholastic action taken against them. In addition,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> L. M. DeRidder. "Comparative College Success of Men and Women," School and Society, Vol. 75, No. 1933 (January 5, 1952), p. 9.

he reported that men were placed on probation more frequently than were the women.

#### SUMMARY AND GENERALIZATIONS

Under study was a group of 1,994 persons who entered the University of Wisconsin, Madison campus, as new freshmen in September, 1948. All were graduated from Wisconsin high schools and were residents of the State of Wisconsin at the time of admission. An attempt was made to analyze the group in terms of "staying power" and rate of progress during the four years following entrance.

Certain facts of this report seem important when thought of in terms of need for revision of selection and recruitment programs, modification of admissions policies, and strengthening of counseling

and testing techniques.

1. The freshman year seems to serve as an effective proving ground during which the student's academic future is challenged seriously. Ordinarily, individuals who rank low on the American Council Psychological Examination and low in their high school classes will have scholastic difficulties during their freshman year and will not progress very far toward graduation over a four-year period. During the four-year period 28 per cent of all entering freshmen were registered two semesters or less as compared with 38 per cent who were registered all eight semesters.

2. The first year of entrance is associated with the greatest loss in registration. Fifteen per cent of the entering group failed to register the second semester of the year of entrance; 35 per cent did not return for the second year. Less than half of the original group were

registered the eighth semester after entrance.

3. There is a significant positive linear association between the number of semesters registered and, taken separately, (a) percentile rank in the high school class with which graduated, (b) percentile rank on the American Council Psychological Examination (1947 edition), and (c) first semester university grade-point average. The correlation coefficients are not sufficiently high to warrant individual forecasts.

4. Students who were graduated in four years or less were, on the average, outstanding in all of the criteria studied.

5. In terms of rate of progress, 83.8 per cent of those registered the beginning of the second year were classified as sophomores, 71.4

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per cent of those registered the beginning of the third year were classified as juniors or seniors, and 72.9 per cent of those registered the beginning of the fourth year were classified as seniors or graduates.

Less than 56 per cent of the original group attained sophomore standing or higher during the second year after entrance, 43.6 per cent attained junior standing or higher during the third year, and 40.5 per cent attained senior standing or higher during the fourth year. Of the original group, 29.8 per cent were graduated in four years or less.

6. A large number, 49.8 per cent, of the original group, had some kind of scholastic action taken against them during the eight semesters after entrance, and 20.4 per cent were dropped at some time because of scholastic difficulties during this same period. Of those graduated in four years or less, 22.9 per cent had some scholastic action taken against them; 9.6 per cent had been put on strict or final probation or dropped and readmitted.

7. Students who were admitted on probation because of low high school grades on the average had limited potential. They appeared to be poor academic risks as a group. Nearly half of them were dropped from the University; only eight per cent were graduated in four years.

8. Of persons who withdrew during or at the end of the first year after being admitted, over 38 per cent were registered within two years at some institution of higher education; over 58 per cent became employed.

9. Although there was little difference between the sexes with regard to "staying power" over the eight semesters since entrance, women were more successful academically.

# The Origin, Background, and Philosophy of the Office of Admissions and Records

#### R. FRED THOMASON

ALTHOUGH the title of this paper would seem to indicate that I am going to give a historical treatise on the development of the office of Admissions and Records, I want to make it clear at the outset that such is not the situation. In the first place, I am not historically minded, and, in the second place, it appears that this treatment of our topic has been accomplished adequately already. Finally, those of us in the field of Admissions and Records are concerned primarily with what is taking place now in these areas of activities.

The past has had a profound influence on the present, and surely we can hope that what we are now doing will make a contribution for the betterment of Education in the future. We have had Records and Admissions Officers as long as there have been colleges and universities. You, however, would have reason to doubt this statement if you should have occasion to delve into the early records of some of our institutions. The permanent record card, as we think of it today, is a fairly recent invention, probably not more than fifty years old; and early ones would hardly be recognized as such when compared with those in use at the present time.

As colleges and universities began to be established in the early days it was logical for someone to determine the competency of those wishing to attend, and hence the admissions officer. Frequently the president performed this function. Space does not permit a discussion of the methods of admissions to college in the early days. Neither is it pertinent to outline here the admission requirements then in effect, though they were very interesting, and in some cases, most unusual.

As time passed inquiries were received at the parent institution asking whether or not John Doe had ever been in attendance there, as per his claims, and stating that a description of his record there would be very helpful if available.

In the very early days it is quite conceivable that these "permanent" records consisted of what the faculty remembered about John Doe. As time elapsed and as members of the faculty passed on to their

reward, it became apparent that permanent records could not be entrusted to the memory of man. And thus out of necessity there was created the need for a permanent record card, the forerunner of the modern Records office.

In the beginning the work of Admissions and Records was an extracurricular activity of the faculty, as was the case with almost all activities outside the classroom. By the turn of the last century, college activities had expanded to such an extent—as was true also in the business world—that more modern methods and procedures were necessary to keep abreast of the times.

In general, the membership of the AACRAO is composed of Admissions Officers and Records Officers, or a combination of the two. They may be known as Deans or Directors of Admissions and Records, or Deans or Directors of Admissions, or Recorders, or Registrars, or by some other slightly different title. In the remainder of this article I shall, for the sake of clarity and brevity, use the word Registrar as inclusive of any or all of these titles.

Why is the office of Registrar a necessary part of the administrative machinery of our colleges and universities today? One might just as well ask why the present modes of transportation instead of the old horse and buggy days.

In the preparation of this article I am greatly indebted to several distinguished Registrars for the use of material prepared by them on the background, development, and philosophy of their own offices. The material to which I refer has not been published and is somewhat confidential in nature; it consists of reports of some of the members of the High School-College Relations Committee of the AACRAO, in which they describe the background, development, and philosophy of their own offices. These reports are most illuminating and informative. I shall feel free, without naming the author, to quote freely from these reports. The authors of some of these reports are Admissions Officers only, while others have the responsibility for both Admissions and Records.

Historically, our colleges and universities have greatly expanded in numbers. The enrollments have grown beyond the fondest dreams of the founding fathers. And thus an ever-increasing demand has been made for broader services to those who support them. So Education today finds itself in the class of Big Business.

As our institutions of higher learning have increased in number,

in size, and in services rendered, so also has the office of the Registrar developed and expanded. It is now looked upon as one of the major administrative positions in college and university circles. This expansion has been brought about largely by the type of functions performed, and this has caused a decided increase in personnel. It has also created the need for a professionally trained personnel.

We Registrars are concerned with the best practices and policies in our fields of endeavor, and we are equally concerned with the turn of events during the next few years. Farsighted planning is necessary

in our work.

During the last fifteen years we have witnessed some revolutionary changes on college campuses. The very nature of the work of the Registrar has put him in the midst of practically every one of these changes. I refer in particular to tremendously increased enrollments, transfer credits of all kinds and descriptions, the veterans, foreign students, greatly expanded college offerings, an ever-increasing number of academic regulations to interpret to those concerned, research on admissions problems and retention of students, proper records to keep, the adequate use of classroom facilities, pre-admission and postadmission counseling, requests of governmental agencies and industry, and a number of others.

Any study of the development of the Registrar's office must give special attention to the happenings during the last twenty to twenty-five years. In addition to the items enumerated in the foregoing paragraph, many of which were largely the result of the war and postwar periods, there were developed during this period a number of machine techniques for use in the Registrar's office. This period might be looked upon definitely as a transition from hand operations to machine procedures.

Today it is not at all uncommon to find in many of our offices use being made of punched card equipment on a large scale, some type of modern duplicating equipment (photocopy), microfilm, correspondence machines, and others. Among other things this means that the Registrar's office is no longer just a storehouse of information about students, but that definite use is being made of the material

which is kept.

A very considerable amount of research is now being carried on, with the records in the Registrar's office serving as a basis of resource material. As a matter of fact, many of our better organized offices today have people on their staffs who are trained in research methods

and who are allotted time for research. No better investment can be made by our institutions than to recognize the importance of this work.

A recognized sign of good administration is to assign to any particular administrator only those functions which have a somewhat close relationship to each other. Naturally these functions and alignments will vary somewhat from campus to campus according to traditions of long standing and the personalities—and training—of the individuals directly concerned. It might also be added that, in some cases at least, the type of institution has had considerable influence on the assignment of administrative functions.

There is no ironclad rule as to the functions of the Registrar, and this statement is equally true of the other college and university administrators. If, however, we should examine the functions of the Registrar in a given number of representative institutions we would find a marked similarity in many of them. These functions have developed and crystallized over a period of years to where many of them are now standard procedure. Furthermore, a careful study reveals that these functions have a close relationship with each other.

If we keep in mind my definition of the Registrar's office, then I think we can safely assign to the Registrar several areas of responsibility. One of the chief reasons for the establishment of such an office was for the purpose of keeping and preserving the academic records of the students and faculty, one of the two first duties of the office. A second major duty was that of admissions. Sometimes they were and now are a part of the same office (under the direction of one officer), and sometimes they were and still are separated. Wherever the separation does exist there appears to be a very close working relationship between them.

It is only logical for the Registrar (as the admissions officer) to assume full and complete responsibility for all phases of college level admissions in his institution, including correspondence necessary thereto. Likewise, all college level academic records should center in the Registrar's office. Records, both those used in the admission of students, and those accumulated after student admission, should be made available for all offices in need of them, but, by careful study and planning, and by a logical assignment of functions, it is believed that much economy and, I might add, a more thorough job can be accomplished.

After World War II the Veterans came to our campuses in ever

increasing numbers, and they are still with us, though in decreasing numbers; but the Korean Veterans are increasing daily. They do present peculiar and unique problems, but those problems are mostly academic, centering around admissions, credits, records. So their problems are the problems of the Registrar. It is logical, therefore, for the Registrar's office to co-ordinate Veterans Affairs.

The problem of selective service apparently is with us for some time to come. The office best equipped to perform this service is the Registrar's office. Hence, a new responsibility has been assigned us. There are two features to this service: one is to make the grade calculations to determine who is eligible for deferment and to notify the local Selective Service Boards; the other is to interpret the selective service regulations to those concerned, namely, the students, their parents, and the public in general. Thus again, out of the very nature of things, the Registrar has assumed another important duty.

In recent years college and university offerings have increased considerably. Upon entering college the student is confronted with the choice of a curriculum, and frequently the selection of a major and minor within the curriculum. Sometimes he must do at least part of this selection before matriculation. In fact, the student needs considerable pre-college guidance if he is to make the most of his opportunities. All this, and the fact that industry is placing a lot of emphasis on specialized training, calls for the student to have some expert advice and assistance in arriving at his decisions.

There is great need for every institution to have a good counseling program. And here I am thinking of the academic or educational side of counseling, though I am aware of the fact that student counseling should not be too much fragmented. Also, I need not remind you that high school and college counseling should be a continuous pro-

gram.

Today many of our schools are placing a great deal of emphasis on pre-college counseling, or high school visitation. Some of these programs are designed primarily to give the student a broad perspective for selecting a career and a college. Others are aimed primarily at student recruitment, which may or may not be a wholesome practice. Some of these programs are most excellent, while others may smack too much of commercialism. However, as long as an honest effort is made to give real educational and vocational guidance the program is worth while.

These programs of high school visitation are more and more becoming a part of the work of the Registrar. If this kind of work is to be done, and there is a definite need for it, then it should be conducted on a very high level. As this writer sees it, pre-admission and post-admission counseling should be closely co-ordinated; in fact, it should form one major program, and the Registrar may well be the co-ordinator of this larger student counseling work.

Whatever type of student counseling program an institution may set up to meet its own needs, including both pre-admission and post-admission counseling; whether the program involves the use of expert counselors, or considers this a part of the regular faculty work, or some other plan; nevertheless, it remains that the Registrar is in a strategic position to co-ordinate the over-all program. In the first place, he has all the records, both pre-admission and post-admission records, to make available to those needing them. Secondly, he considers his institution's educational program in its entirety and not in terms of departments or schools or colleges. It seems logical therefore to include on his staff a properly trained guidance man as co-ordinator of the institution's over-all guidance program. This individual might also be responsible for conducting research in the areas of admission requirements and in student retention.

A survey of the reports of the AACRAO's committee on High School-College Relations reveals the fact that many Registrars have heavy assignments on committee work. Usually the Registrar is chairman of the Committee on Admissions, High School-College Relations, Registration; he is Executive Secretary of the Committee on Scholarships, secretary of the Faculty, the Senate, and its Executive Committee, the Committee on Degrees (graduation), and the Committee on Curriculum. He frequently serves as chairman or secretary of the Committee on Veterans Problems, and Selective Service; also the Calendar Committee. He serves in one capacity or another on several other committees. Thus he is looked to as the official interpreter of his institution's academic rules and regulations.

All these committee assignments place him in a strategic position to be of value to the academic deans and others in his institution responsible for its academic program. If he has done research on student enrollment in its various forms, research on student mortality, on the distribution of grades, on the effectiveness of the institution's student counseling program, and on the trends in majors and minors

(the selection of a vocational objective); then he is of great value to the Deans in curriculum building, in course offerings, and, I might

say, in the improvement of classroom teaching.

More and more the Registrar is looked upon as the one to see that students and faculty alike abide by the regulations of the institution. Sometimes this becomes a monumental task, but it is both economical and efficient to concentrate this responsibility in one office. This statement presupposes an adequate and competent staff. It stands to reason that one office with an adequate and well-trained staff, and with all the necessary records immediately available, can perform these functions better and more economically than can seven or eight other offices which must first have the records made available to them (by the Registrar's office) before action can be taken.

The natural and gradual evolution of the Office of the Registrar—and here I wish to emphasize both Admissions and Records and their several by-products—has brought it to a level of accomplishment highly respected in educational circles. The philosophy and background of the Registrar's Office is best described by Registrars them-

selves. I quote briefly from a few:

"The Office of Admissions and Records was established to provide, among other services, central admission and record keeping for all the Colleges of the University and to promote better articulation be-

tween high schools and the Colleges of the University."

"The purpose in setting up the Office of the Director of Admissions was to increase the services in the field of Admissions, to improve the articulation of the University with high schools and colleges, to centralize the dissemination of information for prospective students, and to centralize and co-ordinate pre-enrollment counseling."

"The Office operates on the thesis of the unity or coherence in admissions, registrations, and records, as a convenience to students; and as an economy and efficiency to the institution. The Office is a unifying agency between the colleges of the University, stressing the

tie that makes them a single institution."

"The Office [of Admissions and Records] is to take leadership both on and off the campus in the solution of problems relating to high school-college relations, articulation between secondary schools, junior colleges, and the University, as well as admission problems. It is felt that the staff members should concern themselves with trends and developments in education, legislative enactments affecting secondary

and college students, the basic principles and practices in admissions as employed in America, as well as the continued improvement of routine tasks."

Colleges and universities are today more aware of the importance of good public relations than ever before. By the very nature of the work of the Registrar, his office must be a public relations office. His high school visitation program furnishes a wonderful opportunity in this field. So also does the multitudinous correspondence he must carry on in the normal operation of his office.

The Registrar's office has long been the source for much of the preparation of the catalogue, brochures, and related material designed primarily as promotional literature. The distribution of these materials is also his responsibility. A friendly and understanding, though accurate, interpretation of the rules and regulations of the institution to prospective students, to the students, to parents, and the general public is a source of fine public relations.

Yes, the Registrar's office is a SERVICE office. The areas in which the Registrar renders service are limited only by his desires and interests, and by the customs and traditions of his own institution.

In the light of the above statement, the areas to which the Registrar may rightfully lay claim may be summarized as follows:

- I. ADMISSIONS—We include the admission of freshmen, transfer students, admission to the professional schools and the graduate school; also the readmission of academically delinquent students. The evaluation of all credits is assumed.
- II. RECORDS—He is the keeper of all academic records. He studies the records necessary to be kept and the uses to be made of them.
- III. STATISTICS—He makes regular reports on enrollment, its trends and significance; on grade distribution, teaching load, and all kinds of related studies. The use of IBM or similar equipment is invaluable here.
- IV. STUDENT COUNSELING—Since the Registrar must be familiar with the curricula of his institution and since student counseling is a part of an adequate admissions program, and since he has in his files so much of the general material so vital to a sound counseling program, it seems logical for him to be the co-ordinator of student counseling, Also, as is indicated in Item V below, he has the supervision of his institution's high school visitation program, which of necessity in a large measure is student counseling, or certainly educational guidance.

V. HIGH SCHOOL VISITATION—By virtue of the fact that the Registrar is the Records officer and the Admissions officer, it is only natural that he should be in charge of his institution's high school-college relations. High school visitation is a part of admissions, which is definitely a function of the Registrar. This particular area of his work is becoming more important yearly.

VI. COMMITTEE WORK—His work qualifies him to be: Secretary to the University Faculty and its ruling committees; to the several College Faculties; Executive Secretary to the Committee on Scholarships, the Committee on Degrees (graduation), the Committee on Curriculum, and to almost all institution-wide committees having to do with academic matters. In addition, he serves as chairman of the Committee on Admissions and the Committee on High School Visitation.

VII. CORRESPONDENCE—The Registrar should conduct all initial correspondence with prospective students and much of the followup work in this field. He is responsible also for the correspondence incident to his committee assignments. He directs the mailing of

all catalogues and brochures.

VIII. REGISTRATION—He is responsible for initiating and carrying out plans for registration. In many institutions this work assumes major proportions, but the lack of space does not permit a detailed analysis of it here.

IX. EDITORIAL WORK—The general catalogue and all other related bulletins should be edited by the Registrar. His office is the one office most concerned with the content of these publications.

X. MILITARY AFFAIRS—The office of Records is the one office best prepared to take care of Selective Service. The Registrar may well be the director of Veterans Affairs. The problems of these students are admissions, records, graduation regulations, and the like, and an interpretation of governmental regulations in the light of the institutional regulations.

XI. FOREIGN STUDENT ADVISER—The reasons given immediately above seem quite appropriate here. The Registrar may well be also the Executive Secretary of the Fulbright Scholarship

program and other related programs.

XII. MISCELLANEOUS—Here we may mention the preparation of class schedules, classroom assignments, the University calendar, examination schedules, answering questionnaires, teacher certification, transcripts, checking students (in full) for graduation; and sending grades to high schools—accompanied by an interpretation of them.

#### CONCLUSION

Let me return to my title, The Origin, Development, and Philosophy of the Office of Admissions and Records. I hasten to emphasize that this is not a historically treated document.

As to the Origins, it can be said that Offices of Records and Admissions have been a part of our colleges and universities from the beginning. In the early days they may not have been known as such, and actually they had little or no resemblance to the modern Registrar's office.

The beginning of the development of the Registrar's office, as we know it today, came into being during the latter part of this last century and the first quarter of the present century. During this period the position of the Registrar came to be recognized as a profession in itself, not needing any longer to be a by-product of some professor's responsibility during his spare time.

Beginning with about 1935 and continuing down to the present we witness remarkable changes taking place. One contributing factor was the development and use of machines in the operation of the office. Another contributing factor, and it is partly the cause for such wide use of machines, has been the tremendous growth in college and university enrollment. Still a third factor has been the ever-increasing demand by industry and by the institutions themselves for better student records; and the need for sounder and more reliable admissions policies.

The philosophy of the Registrar's office is best explained by an enumeration of some of his functions. In retrospect these may be mentioned as some of the major duties: Admissions at all levels, keeper of all academic records, faculty committee work, public relations, editorial work on academic publications, correspondence, coordinating student counseling, registration procedures, classroom and office assignments, class schedules, directing research in areas pertaining to admissions, grades, statistical work, and the like.

All in all, the Registrar has certainly reached his maturity, and he occupies a position comparable to that of the academic deans and other major administrative officers.

## Editorial Comment

#### Freedom-Academic and Other

A subject once confined to stodgy chapter meetings of the American Association of University Professors has suddenly achieved a glamor few magazine writers, newspaper editors or radio pundits have been able to resist. "Academic freedom" has been wrested from the hands of the dons by the hucksters and, in the process of the "big build-up" is becoming a double-tongued shibboleth like "liberal", "fascist" and "democracy"—words which were also once friends of ours until the

propaganda organs took them over.

Two recent causes célèbres indicate how completely what was once academic has become epidemic. Professor Frank Richardson of the University of Nevada was dismissed for "demonstrated insubordination", the insubordination apparently having been an active disgust with the educational philosophy and administrative policy of his University's President. Across the continent, in Vermont, Dr. Alex Novikoff, a biologist at the University of Vermont was told to "talk or walk" by July 15 after he had earlier refused to provide certain information on past associates to the Jenner sub-committee. Having refused to talk, Dr. Novikoff was suspended from his University job on July 15.

Both of these cases are hailed as violations of academic freedom, and this type of thing, some of the hucksters would have us believe, is happening on campuses all over the country. Pity the poor professors! Living in a climate of terror, nervously gnawing their fingernails, they hesitate to correct a grammatical error or to be definitive on the spelling of "cat" lest some Gestapo-minded student rush out to inform on

them to McCarthy, Jenner, or Velde.

We have no brief for the inquisitorial committee men nor their official or unofficial spokesmen, but we are concerned that such a dearly cherished professional concept as academic freedom should be prostituted in the public press.

What is academic freedom, and why is it so dearly cherished? "Freedom" is liberation from slavery, imprisonment, or restraint. "Academic" means pertaining to an academy, college, or university.

"Academic freedom," therefore, by definition of terms, is liberation from fetters in regard to scholastic activities. The Association of American University Professors has reiterated and re-interpreted the meaning of this concept to the college and university teaching profession several times since its first declaration of principles in 1915. According to the AAUP, academic freedom is comprised essentially of three elements: "... freedom of inquiry and research; freedom of teaching within the university or college; and freedom of extra-mural utterance and action".1

One hardly ever hears a dissenting voice occasioned by the statement of principles on academic freedom. Neither does one hear violent controversy with the principle that a primary goal of public education is "education for democracy". It is only when an attempt is made to translate principles into action that the fur begins to fly.

Academic freedom is so dearly cherished by the teaching profession as a whole because it provides the only condition or climate under which the function of teacher and learner can be realized. That function is the search for or inquiry into truth. Education comes, etymologically, from a verb meaning to draw out from, to educe. Fetter the mind in its process of logical thought and the meaning and soul are removed from the educational process. Loss of academic freedom is a blow, not only to the big, non-sectarian university; it is equally as lethal to the small denominational schools which comprise the great bulk of colleges teaching the liberal arts. The stock in trade of the liberal arts colleges is more completely the speculative branches of learning in contradistinction to the larger universities where, in addition to liberal arts, are usually to be found other colleges devoted to the more precise and factually objective disciplines of science and technology.

If academic freedom is in itself so noble and if the profession as a whole reveres it so, why has it become suspect? A few venal men, the hucksters, and an uncertainty in the teaching profession itself have brought it into disrepute. An ideologist who views the academic profession not for what it is intended to be, but as an opportunity to propagandize his ideology to an immature and captive audience, will pay as scant attention to his obligations as an academically free man as he does to the true purpose of teaching. It is interesting to note that

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> AAUP Bulletin, Vol. XXXIV, No. 1, Spring, 1948, p. 144.

although we speak of teaching as a profession, college teaching has the lowest professional standing of any of the major professions. Physicians have to meet the requirements of the AMA and Medical Board exams; lawyers have to pass the Bar exams before being admitted to practice. But anyone with a degree after his name stands a fair chance of talking some academic administrator into hiring him as a teacher, especially on the college level where the same regard for professional preparation does not hold as on the elementary and secondary levels. While no Ph.D. in biology would think of hanging up his shingle to practice medicine after graduating, he occasions no surprise when, the term after receiving his degree, he turns up on some college or university campus as an assistant professor even though he has had no formal preparation for teaching.

A person who subscribes to the Communist ideology, whether party member or not, is unfit to accept the burden of academic freedom. He cannot proceed by logical inquiry to the truth. He is presented with the Communist thesis appropriate to his field of study and thereafter his whole professional activity must be to assemble and organize "facts" that will rationalize that thesis. If college administrators gave more time, thought, and investigation to the selection of their teaching personnel it is doubtful that any but the slyest and most deceptive "underground" Communists would ever get on college or university faculties. In view of world conditions, a direct question concerning Communist party membership or sympathy would also seem to be in order for prospective new teachers. A deliberate lie would seem to be

basis for voiding any contract.

The few Communists, Communist sympathizers, and fuzzy thinkers in the profession have done immeasurable harm to the concept of academic freedom. One who is truly free should have the courage and conviction of his beliefs. To be a Communist is not to be legally guilty of anything in the United States. The Communist Party is still a legal party. If the admitted Communist can be proven in a court of law to have advocated the violent overthrow of our Government, that, of course, is a different matter. An investigating committee, however, is not a court of law. No matter how great our distaste for the tactics or practices of investigating committees, we do ourselves and our profession great harm by acting like stubborn boys before them. Frank and honest answers will do more to dispel the gradually growing suspicion of the teaching profession as a whole than any number of

"stands" that are taken on the issues of academic freedom or the Fifth Amendment.

Whether Professor Richardson's academic freedom was violated by his dismissal is something this writer cannot presume to pre-judge. It depends, one would surmise, upon just how disruptive to the academic freedom of the institution as a whole his heckling of the President of the University of Nevada became. With regard to Dr. Novikoff, if the reason for his suspension was the fact that he exercised his rights under the Fifth Amendment, then his civil, not his academic, freedom was violated. The Fifth Amendment is a law of the land. Fire a man for appealing to the Fifth Amendment and the door is opened to a breakdown of all rights under civil law.

"Academic freedom" today is getting mixed up with many things it is not. It should be the duty of all professional men and women in teaching to give the lie when academic freedom is not the true issue. We, as professional people, must support those of our colleagues whose academic freedom is truly violated. Where civil rights are violated, however, it is not an academic matter as such, but one for

the courts and the body politic as a whole.

T. A. G.

### Industry's Responsibility to Education

RECENT attacks upon the public schools, and the suspicions and charges raised against higher education have done much harm to the cause of education in this country. In the minds of many people, who cannot determine whether the charges are true or false, there has been created a feeling of distrust. Moreover, those within the profession have failed to band together in common defense of their programs and activities and have contributed in some measure to a lack of public confidence. At such a time, it is particularly gratifying to know that other groups not engaged in college and university work are vitally concerned about higher education and are expressing their confidence in a very tangible way.

On the basis of a three-year study completed last year, the Commission on Financing Higher Education of the Association of American Universities has reported that higher education must have more income because rising costs of education have far outstripped incomes. The pressures of inflation, of high taxes, of lower endowment returns,

and the melting away of the old-fashioned type of large bequest have all contributed to creating a serious situation. Especially hard hit are the small private liberal-arts colleges. Beyond very definite limits they cannot increase student fees; and unless additional support is forth-coming, many will have to be closed. While there are certain ways in which economies can be effected by the institution itself, new sources of income are absolutely essential.

Recognizing the seriousness of the situation, the Chamber of Commerce of the United States has issued an official statement of policy declaring that "Business must assume a greater responsibility for the financing of higher education in order to undergird the American concept which precludes charging its full cost to students." The National Association of Manufacturers by resolution has taken a similar

position.

For many years corporations have been making grants in support of scientific or industrial research projects. Now the Chamber of Commerce states that in supporting higher education "Business should be mindful of the immeasureable contributions to the arts, sciences, and citizenship of our non-governmental colleges and universities, and of their financial plight due to economic conditions." Aid to liberal-arts colleges is something new, but this program now has strong support among industrial leaders.

Of unusual significance are some recent developments in industry. Standard Oil of Indiana has made available a fund of \$150,000 for distribution during 1953 "to liberal-arts colleges maintaining high-quality four-year programs" in the fourteen mid-western states served by the company. The Bethlehem Steel Company has adopted a plan involving 45 institutions which provides \$3000 to the college or university for each graduate accepted for training as a potential execu-

tive in the company.

Increasing gifts from industry to higher education, and the tremendous support of organizations like the National Association of Manufacturers and the Chamber of Commerce of the United States indicate great confidence in the work of colleges and universities. If sufficient additional income from private sources becomes available, it will obviate the need for direct federal aid to private institutions which the Commission on Financing Higher Education has rejected as a solution of their financial problems because freedom of higher education might be lost. The basic strength of our country rests in large measure upon a wise concept of education adopted by the early founders of this country which has resulted in a system of schools offering wide opportunities from early childhood through the adult years. Sight is sometimes lost of the vital role education has played in developing this country, in giving its citizens the highest standards of living ever attained by any civilization, and in putting it very rapidly into a position of world leadership. It is well that business recognizes its dependence upon higher education and voluntarily accepts its stewardship.

A.H.P.

### Book Reviews

S. A. N.

Ernest O. Melby and Morton Puner, Ed., Freedom and Public Education, New York: Praeger, 1953. Pp. 314.

At a time when college Boards of Trustees, Faculties, chapters of the American Association of University Professors, and student groups are discussing the problem of democracy and freedom in the schools and colleges, the publication of this compendium "Freedom and Public Education" is most timely and welcome. An attempt is made through a series of selections to cover briefly the historical background of the modern school, the relation of religion to the schools, attacks on education and efforts to secure a good educational program.

Dean Melby as co-editor sets the tone in the introduction by indicating the challenges that education faces today in terms of the loss of faith evident in the relationship of federal and state agencies toward the local school units as well as the skepticism and bitterness of religious groups toward each other.

One of the best presentations is made by Henry Steele Commager, who traces our efforts to provide an enlightened citizenry through education. By virtue of the fact that our school system has satisfied the initial purpose of the republic and has helped to Americanize our millions of foreign immigrants, Professor Commager points out that our educational system now finds itself at the crossroads—whether to "enforce nationalism or to inspire internationalism."

Appropriate recognition is given to the problems of the loyalty oath at the University of California as well as the difficulties encountered in recent years in the school systems of Pasadena and Scarsdale. The Pasadena affair is related by John Hersey and James Conant in terms of their published reviews of the book "This Happened in Pasadena," by David Hulburd.

One of the most effective summaries of the methods used to discredit our public schools is presented by Arthur D. Morse, who recounts the techniques, literatures, and sweeping charges used to stampede parents into believing that our public schools are the breeding grounds of Communism.

Among the various other contributors are listed William Kilpatrick, Earl J. McGrath, John Foster Dulles, William O. Douglas, Benjamin Fine and George D. Stoddard.

It is inevitable that some forty articles taken from books, lectures,

journals, and newspapers, many of them based on essentially the same problems in education, will be somewhat episodic, and that the reading will produce some measure of fatigue unless it is spread over more than the usual span of reading time. It should nevertheless be agreed that the editors have been judicious in their selections and that there is a logical

presentation of the articles as well as a sound commentary.

There remains unresolved the perennial question—the extent to which legislators are empowered to inquire into the inner thoughts and beliefs of our teachers, and on the other hand the question of what to do with the teacher whose thoughts and teaching are perverted by Communism and other isms. It is, no doubt, better to let one such teacher go undetected than it is to limit the thinking of all teachers. In this fashion free inquiry will not be trampled upon and teachers can pursue the basic aspect of their profession by encouraging their students to examine all phases of a problem before arriving at an appraisal.

ROBERT L. TAYLOR, Registrar City College of New York

Higher Education in the Forty-Eight States, A Report to the Governors' Conference, Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1952. Pp. xiv + 317.

People who like to sleep on tables will find this volume a great comfort, for the covers are soft, the tables are extensive, and the text, consisting of a recital of more statistics and the obvious conclusions from the tables, is an effective soporific. Nevertheless, the tables are well made, and within the scope of the book ("the organization and financing of state programs of higher education") they reveal a multitude of facts.

The author's flash-back technique putting the conclusions at the beginning should be met by the reader by skipping the summary chapter, for the trite conclusions (public demand for and costs of higher education will mount; public funds will continue a major source of income; coordination is necessary for efficiency) leave one wondering why the rest of the book is

necessary. The summary material is all repeated later anyway.

Although the conclusions read like truisms, the detailed comparisons by states and for public and private institutions of where the money comes from and where it goes, as well as where the students come from and where they go, make this encyclopedic reference a prerequisite to the claim of erudition in the field of public higher education. A particularly bright spot is the attention given to the dawn of interinstitutional co-operation.

WALTER A. GLASS, Registrar Drew University Deferrari, Roy J., Ed., The Curriculum of the Catholic College (Integration and Concentration)—(The proceedings of the workshop on the Curriculum of the Catholic College conducted at the Catholic University of America from June 12 to June 23, 1951.), Washington, D. C.: Catholic University of America Press, 1952.

For several years the Catholic University of America has sponsored and conducted an annual workshop which aims to improve the liberal arts program of the Catholic College. The 1951 session devoted itself to a study of the problems of the distribution, concentration and integration of the curriculum. The findings of this workshop are reported in *The Curriculum of the Catholic College*.

A vigorous pace for the workshop was set by the Very Reverend James Marshall Campbell, Ph.D., in a series of three papers dealing with his concept of concentration and integration of the curriculum in a liberal and general education. He treats of the phases of utility, indoctrination

and departmentalization as they affect both student and teacher.

Father Campbell outlines the general types of curriculum, namely, the "Interest" curriculum in which the student takes what he likes—the non-frustration course; the "Traditional" curriculum wherein the school decrees the program to be followed; the "Great Books" curriculum which aims to heighten the student's interest through reading other than texts; the "Logical Action" curriculum which is currently popular; and the "Mixed" curriculum which tries to meet business and educational interests and demands. He then proceeds to explain the "Curriculum of Concentration," indicating its scope, its possibilities and its rewards. Father Campbell points out the differences between concentrating and majoring, describing the program of concentration as one bound to achieve a general rather than a special education. The core of the program is the Reading List course and the Co-ordinating Seminar which culminate in comprehensive examinations at the end of the fourth year.

The rest of the report consists chiefly of papers showing how such a concentration program may be worked out in the fields of religion, philosophy, history, modern languages, the social sciences, art, music and the physical sciences. The summaries of the Seminar Proceedings are a

distinct addition to this wealth of educational material.

There are undoubtedly many readers who will insist that no difference exists between "majors" and "concentrators," others will fail to agree with the advocates of concentration that their program guarantees an overall integrated general education, while the "major-minor" program leaves room for disconnected, piecemeal courses. On the other hand, the "concentrators" have no quarrel with a system of majors and minors which assures an integrated liberal education.

Even those who are not convinced of the value of the proposed program must welcome this interesting report, representing as it does a significant contribution to the attempt to solve the problem of turning out college graduates possessed of a liberal education and not of a mere accumulation of credits.

SISTER MARIE ROSAIRE, O.P., Registrar College of St. Mary of the Springs Columbus, Ohio

Knapp, Robert H., and Greenbaum, Joseph J.: The Younger American Scholar: His Collegiate Origins. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press and The Wesleyan University Press Inc.

Unlike American Men of Science, which lists scholars who have shown high professional competence, and Origins of American Scientists, which traces the origin of the men in the former book, this book lists young scholars who, according to the authors, show promise of high competence. The work was financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. There are sixty-nine figures and tables summarizing, among other things, such a variety of problems as the relative productivity of public and private schools in turning out scholars-to-be, the general trends in their choice of fields of study, the geographical distribution of young scholars by schools, the relation of cost of attendance to eventual achievement, the contributions of women to scholarship, and so on. From all this the authors draw certain conclusions concerning the general cultural patterns of the nation as determined by regional differences, the intellectual tendencies of the nation, and the best place to go for a doctor's hood and the probability, it is almost certainty and guarantee, of brilliant success in the field of scholarship.

The authors state in one place that this is a study of the "undergraduate origins of younger American scholars who have won academic distinction in graduate schools since 1946." In another place the younger scholars are called "distinguished individuals, as measured by Ph.D. awards and university fellowships." Since when is the Ph.D. a sign or patent of intellectual distinction, and would all schools granting the Ph.D. guarantee the quality of the work, or call all the Ph.D. candidates distinguished individuals? Does the Ph.D. indicate that the recipient can carry out "particular intellectual tasks?" The authors themselves advert to this weakness and confess that for "practical considerations" they "were forced to rely solely on easily obtained, nonjudgmental, quantitative data." They justify this by the assertion that "no matter what source is employed, there is no way of evaluating future validity today," but they are uneasy about such an admission. They are still determined to equate Ph.D. and scholarship

grants with future excellence and they go on to prove the validity of their findings with the contention that "in this case, some congruence theory of truth can be applied to the data; such that if our various sources all yield the same production patterns when compared with the several independent variables of this study, we can assume with high confidence the validity of our results. As we shall see, such congruence is amply demonstrated in our results." But the ground is shaky; and we are left with the fact that very high claims are made for the promise and achievement of young scholars even though the authors confess that they were "forced to rely solely on easily obtained, nonjudgmental, quantitative data" in their estimation of them. The authors explain and justify other weaknesses or deficiencies in their listing; they themselves finally suggest certain improvements. When they add that "these improvements, however, could be effected only by considerably extending the time devoted to the study," we wonder why they ever undertook the study at all if they were so pressed for time. When they confess further that the exclusion of graduate teaching and research assistantships is a serious limitation, as it most certainly is, and then add that "the only reason for their exclusion from our roster is that it was not possible, in most cases, to obtain easily central listings of such individuals," we are still further appalled at this kind of scholarship. We wonder even more at their temerity in issuing such a study, which makes large promises about helping "to maintain and increase the intellectual strength of the country" by recognizing young scholars who show promise of "future intellectual achievements of note."

There are certain factors not tabulated which could have some influence on the number of awards. For instance, the New England schools and those of the North Central states show a large number of recipients; this may be due to the fact that in these states more awards are granted, and as a rule, to students from these regions first. This does not necessarily mean that the top students in these regions outrank in scholarly possibilities the students from the less-favored regions. Also, more students from the favored regions will have the leisure and the means to go on into graduate work. This is further substantiated by the fact that in those liberal arts colleges and universities where the cost per capita is the highest, a strikingly large number of students go into graduate work; in fact, the upper fifth of such institutions sends more students into graduate work than the other four fifths taken together. But this is partly theory and the authors might be excused from considering it. They might have made some further inquiries into the reasons why more students from the favored regions went into the social sciences and the humanities than into the sciences in order to determine whether geographical distribution and the pressure to find a job quickly after graduation had anything to do with the choice. But perhaps it is well that they did not extend the field of study, for the

BOOK REVIEWS · 121

samplings from any one region are not sufficient to give the generalizations much authority.

All told, it is not an impressive piece of work. If the authors lacked the time or the money to do a more thorough study, they might have waited for more favorable conditions. If the tabular material were compressed considerably, the text revised and tightened, the foundation settled somewhat more firmly, and a sampling given over a longer period of time, there might be enough in the material for a good, interesting article, but hardly more than that. As it is, it is an inferior piece of work of very little interest or value.

FRITZ MOORE

Dept. of Modern Languages

Kansas State College

Moelhman, Arthur Henry and Roucek, Joseph S., Ed., Comparative Education, New York: The Dryden Press, 1952. Pp. 630.

This volume concerns the educational systems in most of the countries in the world. Beginning with an essay by Arthur Henry Moelhman which outlines the purpose of the collection, there follow individual treatments of the various educational patterns by a group of specialists. Although some attention is given to the quantitative aspects of curriculum, each chapter maintains a broad framework which considers the system as part of its culture. To this end, we receive a picture of existing institutions of learning throughout the world as a product of historical, social, economic, and political factors. In many cases, the impact of one culture upon another is thrown into high relief for the reader, who is then able to comprehend the unique aspects of a particular educational system in terms of its cultural heritage.

Educational systems in any country become relatively successful when they approach the goal of providing an orientation for young people to the culture, to the world, and to life, which poses the problem of vocation, and even more important, a meaningful tradition which may act as a basis for living. In this volume, certain significant conclusions are reached by the authors which will be welcomed by all who believe that an intelligent educational system aims at developing, rather than thwarting, the individual capabilities, interests, and talents of the young people in our world. The articles dealing with the Western European countries, for example, chronicle the struggle which has taken place in the past fifty years. The enlightened educators have fought the upholders of the old, "elite," "two-track" systems, which gave a thoroughgoing training to a ruling minority, but reserved an episodic training for the vast majority, regardless of personal qualification. Slowly, painfully, "elite" systems have

been abolished, and in their place "universal" systems have emerged. These are founded upon the notion that educational systems should cater

to an "aristocracy of talent."

It is noted that in the Soviet Union an "elite" system has been established, although the Russians would argue that in reality they possess a universal system. It appears that far from being supportive to human growth, the nature of education in the U.S.S.R. at present can best be described as a function of its vast state propaganda machine. This keynotes the precarious position of a liberating educational system, which may stand or fall, depending upon whether it manages to fulfill its intrinsic purpose, or whether it becomes subordinated to an ulterior motive, engulfed in a state creed.

The volume ends with a chapter entitled "Efforts at Internationalism in Education," which briefly traces the history of international efforts among educators. Here, the point is made that just as a nationalistic world will have nationalistic education, so an internationalistic world will very naturally develop its educational system along international lines.

This writer is of the opinion that those of us who are upon occasion taken aback by the gigantic challenge which accompanies the quest for world harmony will find in this volume abundant evidence that very concrete steps have already been taken; that an increasingly effective majority of diverse people in diverse cultures do indeed share the enlightened desire to break old bonds, to realize in this century a standard of creative living which may be implemented by the resources civilization now has at its disposal.

DAVID LAWSON
Columbia University

Nature and Needs of Higher Education, The Report of the Commission on Financing Higher Education, New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xi + 191.

Brief, direct, and informative, Nature and Needs of Higher Education is the well-written final report of the findings and conclusions of the Commission on Financing Higher Education. The Commission's staff, through grants of the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation, published ten other volumes representing the most complete study on the financing of higher education that has recently been made.

Recognizing that "higher education has always been difficult to support," the Commission places upon the American people as a nation, the responsibility for understanding "the role of higher education in terms which will insure its necessary financial support in the years ahead." Nor is the Commission satisfied with merely adequate support but "varied and

BOOK REVIEWS · 123

diverse support" if higher education "is to be free, and if it is to reflect the fundamental characteristics of a society which is free."

Although recognizing that costs must go up with increased enrollment, the Commission states as a basic tenet of its philosophy that, "higher education must make its first goal the task of recruiting and educating a

larger proportion of the top 25 per cent of our young people."

In reviewing the economic problems of higher education the Commission analyzes the effects of five "common pressures": inflation; the expansion of educational services; fluctuating student enrollments; needs for enlarged and modernized capital plant; uncertain sources of income. The obvious conclusions in the face of these pressures are economy and more income. Curriculum reforms, better business management and use of plant, and co-operation among institutions are necessary. Without more income, however, no degree of economy can answer the financial problems of higher education. The Commission advises, moreover, that Universities should avoid taking on projects not appropriate to their research programs, except under urgent conditions of national emergency. In turn, the Commission recommends that the agency which sponsors a research program should assume responsibility for all costs. In summing up, the Commission warns of the danger, not so much of bankruptcy, that may result from economic stringency, but of "retrenchments which can harm and even irreparably damage educational programs."

"As a nation," the Commission states, "we can afford the higher education we want, for the total income of higher education amounts to less than one per cent of national income." If an increase in income is accomplished, however, it must be properly distributed among the institu-

tions of the country, if it is to have its desired effect.

Among the various sources of support, the Commission considers increased tuition rate, church support, alumni giving, and additional support from foundations, labor unions, business, and industry. This portion of the study provides an excellent blueprint of means and methods for securing additional financial support. It must be read by every administrator.

Federal aid as a means of support for higher institutions comes under scrutiny of the Commission. The aid given by the government to the education of veterans and the stimulus to research enterprises, is recognized as a genuine contribution. Nevertheless, the Commission states, "after giving due weight to all these considerations this Commission has reached the unanimous conclusion that we, as a nation, should call a halt, at this time, to the introduction of new programs of direct Federal aid to Colleges and Universities. We, also, believe it undesirable for the government to expand the scope of its scholarship aid to individual students." On the other hand, the Commission favors state aid to private institutions

through student scholarships and the support of special programs within

higher institutions.

The Commission has performed a service in clarifying the many problems to be faced in financing higher education. Some of the issues raised may be the subject of controversy, but there will be few who will not find help in the careful analysis which has been made of this problem.

EDWARD J. MORTOLA, Provost Pace College

Traxler, Arthur E.; Jacobs, Robert; Selover, Margaret; Townsend, Agatha, Introduction to Testing and the Use of Test Results in Public Schools, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953. Pp. x + 113.

Here is a brief but comprehensive book of information on various aspects of testing. There are chapters on the contribution of tests to understanding individual pupils (a restrained discussion); planning a testing program; and details of selecting, giving, scoring, and analyzing tests. Interpretation of results, recording them, and then using them, are matters well discussed and thoroughly illustrated (Chapter 10).

Considering how technical the whole method of testing is, and how difficult for even the academic nonexpert to understand, the authors of this book have given a good deal of helpful information, and have avoided the error sometimes committed by experts—that of confusing their spe-

cialty with ultimate salvation.

Knapp, Robert H., and Goodrich, H. B., Origins of American Scientists. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1952. xiv + 450 pp.

Reporting the results of a studiously detailed analysis of the undergraduate college trainings of some 18,000 male American scientists, this volume is the closest thing in existence to an objective summary of the relative effectiveness of our colleges and universities in fulfilling one of their primary functions. The survey, commissioned by the trustees of Wesleyan University and the Carnegie Foundation and executed by a committee of the science division of that faculty, attacked the twofold problem of assessing the relative efficiency of scientist-production in some 490 American colleges and universities and of discovering those factors that contributed to effective production. It includes a statistical study of the undergraduate origins of the selected sample of scientists, a collection of case-studies of twenty-two individual institutions of remarkable achievement or special interest, and an attempted analysis of the influential factors in producing effective science departments and science teachers.

BOOK REVIEWS · 125

The authors define the term "productivity index" (P.I.) of an institution as the number of male graduates in the eleven year period 1924-34 who eventually obtained the Ph.D. in a science field, per thousand male graduates during the same period. In the 489 institutions tabulated, P.I.'s ranged from 0.0 to the remarkable rate of 131.8 (Reed College of Oregon). Generalizations among these raw data are themselves of interest. For example, among the fifty most productive institutions, 24 are affiliated with Protestant churches, six are state institutions, and the remainder are private, non-church schools. Only six are primarily technical schools. All Catholic schools, without exception, rank in the lowest fifty. Only two of the top fifty are really large universities, and only five had an annual average (during the period 1924-34) in excess of 200 students in their graduating classes. Only one of the top fifty is a southern school, three are in New England, five in the Middle Atlantic states, and the remaining 41 are located in the Middle and Far West. The most productive institutions are the small liberal arts colleges.

An attempt was made to discover correlations between P.I. and factors that might reasonably be supposed significant. Eighteen such factors were carried as far as the actual computation of correlation values. They included the qualitative variables of geographic location, source of the school's support or sponsorship, and presence or absence of social fraternities; such "academic" variables as enrollment and mortality, fraction of male students, student-faculty ratio, fraction of faculty engaged in science-teaching, fraction of faculty in junior rank, and fraction of science faculty holding the Ph.D.; "financial" variables as tuition cost, minimum total cost of attendance, endowment, and total outlay per student; and entrance requirements such as high-school science, mathematics, and his-

tory minima specified for admittance.

Remarkably, of these 18 factors, only geographical location gave a correlation value exceeding the one per cent level of reliability. The interesting conclusion is that productivity increases westward. The only other factors of sufficiently great correlation to justify any further discussion are size of school, cost of attendance, endowment, and mathematics requirement for entrance. In general, small schools of moderate cost and modest endowment were most productive. There is a negative correlation between productivity and mathematics requirement for admission, probably because schools with a severe mathematics entrance minimum are likely to overemphasize the engineering aspects of science rather than the "pure" fields. The number of schools included in this portion of the survey was about 150, restricted to liberal arts colleges alone and omitting both Catholic and state institutions.

For a limited sample of only 50 institutions, the committee was able

to obtain data on a nineteenth factor, a measure of "student quality." This factor was taken as the median American Council on Education score for the student body for the year 1933. The resulting correlation was the highest computed, more significant than geographical location. For this group, only the factors of student quality, geographical location, and cost of attendance were found significant.

A similar analysis was made of fifty universities. In this group the significant correlations are limited to geographical location (Far West and Middle West most productive), cost of attendance (medium cost institutions most productive, high cost least), and faculty-student ratio (high ratio

most productive).

It is most unfortunate that a valuable survey of this nature should find so much of its work vitiated by being forced to exclude from consideration the most important single factor in productivity of an institution—the quality of its students. Thus would California Institute of Technology rank so high (2nd) if she were required to accept all students with a high school diploma? Or would Miami or Wisconsin rank so low (44th and 45th) if they could select their students with the rigor exercised by Cal. Tech.? There are six state schools among the first fifty. Considering that these schools require only a high-school diploma for admittance, theirs is a remarkable achievement. The value of the survey would be enormously greater if the effect of variable levels of student quality on productivity index could have been removed. Apparently the only reason the committee omitted this factor (except for the limited sample mentioned above) was the refusal of college administrators to supply them with the data they needed.

The results digested above are contained in the first seven chapters. The next seven chapters contain "case studies" of 22 selected schools, attempts to find and describe those factors resident in the cultural and academic atmospheres, the faculty, and the physical facilities of some of the most productive schools. Restricted as it would be to smaller schools, time and again the investigators found the focus of productivity to be a single professor or two of great personal charm, academic integrity, and inspiration.

Following the assembling of case studies, the collection was examined to learn whether new common springs of productivity could be disclosed. The results were disappointing and yielded the facts that only severity of departmental requirements and strength of departmental esprit de corps could consistently be related to success. No conclusions regarding the importance of curricular factors could be discovered. This point is remarkable, for it means that the productivity of an institution is not likely to be altered by alteration of its curricular requirements. No connection between a subjective estimate of the quality of physical facilities and

BOOK REVIEWS

productivity index could be found. Existence or non-existence of a departmental club or library has no significance. One finds only that over and over again productivity is associated with an ethos the authors describe as "broad intellectual emphasis." And this, be it noted, is a matter of ethos, not of administrative legislation.

The survey includes also an attempt to discover those factors that make great teachers great. Wholesome reading for every teacher of science, the results were assembled from some 1600 invited responses to a specially prepared "faculty rating sheet" submitted to graduate-scientists of the most productive institutions. While the conclusions must necessarily be incomplete and uncertain, it seems true that eminent teachers are successful less for their competence or command of particular teaching skills than for their total impact as human beings. The complex of characteristics best identified with the good teacher is a "strong father figure."

The scholarly and meticulous approach of the authors is impressive. They have treated a highly subjective problem with commendable objectivity. Both authors are scientists and they have made an important contribution to practical sociology. The 130 pages of appendical data attest their workmanlike job and make inviting reading for the college teacher-scientist. One hopes that this study is a beginning and that further efforts, perhaps with the active co-operation of college administrators, will illuminate more clearly the problem of where scientists come from and how we can get more of them. The authors report a fine piece of research, but as in all fine research have uncovered far more problems than they solved.

HOWARD L. RITTER Professor of Chemistry Miami University

General Education in School and College. A Committee Report, By Members of the Faculties of Andover, Exeter, Lawrenceville, Harvard, Princeton, and Yale. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1952, pp. 142.

For some years it had become more and more apparent that many of the superior graduates of some of the country's leading preparatory schools were not living up in college to what could logically be expected of them, judging by their records in the secondary schools. Preliminary investigations revealed that there were certain definite reasons for this patently undesirable and illogical state of affairs.

The by-product of the early investigation (perhaps that is too formal a word for it) was the appointment of a committee (with several sub-committees) composed of representatives of the three preparatory schools and the three universities listed in the heading above, to study the cur-

riculum content of the last two years of prep school and the first two years of college, for the trouble seemed to stem from that source. This committee, created in the summer of 1951, worked long and faithfully at its assigned task; its findings and suggestions are embodied in its report, which has just been published in book form by the Harvard Press for general distribution.

Many teachers and administrators who see the title of the little volume will, I fear, assume all too readily that the conditions and things discussed will be valid only for these six schools (perhaps also for a few others in the East) and be of little or no value for the great majority of secondary schools and institutions of higher education. This assumption has possibly a grain of truth in it, but it is a dangerous generalization at best.

The book is divided into seven chapters of varying length as follows:

I. Main Objectives

II. Specific Weaknesses and Failures

III. The Essentials of a Liberal Education

IV. A Program of Study: General Principles

V. A Program of Study: Specific Areas VI. Motivation

VII. A Seven-Year Program: Planned Acceleration

An introduction, conclusion, and appendix add to its usefulness.

This report is not composed of tables, summaries of questionnaires, or other things of that nature that so often find their way into the reports of academic committees. The men who made this investigation were inspired by a sincere desire to get at the root of the trouble, analyze it, and present a practical program for remedying the undesirable condition. The committee was certainly interested in planning something that would lay the foundation for a truly liberal education.

It was soon discovered that the trouble stemmed mainly from an overduplication of work in the last two years of high school and the first two years of college. The following specific areas were carefully studied by capable subcommittees: The English Language, Foreign Languages, Mathematics, The Natural Sciences, The Social Studies: American History, West-

ern Civilization, Contemporary Society, Literature, The Arts.

While duplication exists in almost every area, the greatest amount seemed to be in the areas of history and natural science. Language courses came in for close scrutiny, and the conclusion is that mastery in any one language is not now being attained either in prep school or college. This is a condition that can, and should, be corrected if we are to produce liberally trained people. There is no area of study in which things cannot be bettered by change, but the treatment cannot be the same for all, nor can it be hastily undertaken.

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The chapter dealing with areas of study ends with a section entitled "Values." This, to my mind, is exceedingly fine, for it represents a genuine interest and desire to formulate the basis of a general education program and a firm foundation on which later training could be built.

To discuss in detail each chapter and proposal lies far beyond the province of a review. Two suggestions are, I believe, worthy of note here. The first is a proposal (not original) to give more attention to acceleration in areas in which the student shows unusual ability; this is aptly termed "progression in strength." The second proposal is akin to what we call general acceleration: it would be the omission, for the strongest and most gifted of students, of the last year of secondary school—or the first of their college course. Such a procedure would have to be carefully done and placement would be only after admission by the college. All will agree that this is a wise safeguard.

This book should certainly be read by all those interested in the basic problem of correlating secondary and college work. Its suggestions are apt and to the point, and should be studied and thought over by administrators both at the secondary and the college level. The book's influence, or, more accurately, that of the committee who produced it, will be seen only by what the future brings forth. It may very well inaugurate a forward step and set in motion a new and needed procedure in our educational system.

WILLIAM MARION MILLER Miami University

Russell, Bertrand, The Impact of Science on Society, New York: Simon and Schuster, 1953. Pp. 114.

A good many people seem to believe that hard, logical thinking about the sources of trouble and dismay is somehow less admirable than emotional disturbance over the plight of those who are troubled and dismayed. There are those who unconsciously, perhaps, but nevertheless thoroughly confuse what they hope for with what exists or can exist. Still others seem to believe that an effort to think logically without deference to predilections and habits is somehow immoral and necessarily productive only of folly or evil. All such, as well as those who are dazzled by brilliance rather than guided by it, will have their troubles with Mr. Russell's latest book, and will perhaps be inclined to take the author to task for irrelevant and possibly imaginary reasons.

Mr. Russell's opinion, if one may venture to try to epitomize a book that is a masterwork of succinctness, perspicacity, and wit, is that science can be of immeasurable service to man, if man will only be wise as well as ingenious. Man seems at present to be determined on self-extermina-

tion, however, and wisdom has little place in his thinking; as a consequence science is facilitating his descent to Avernus. The Impact of Science on Society is a treatise on values—one of very few works of that sort that can keep a reader alert, thinking, and chuckling, and still make clear to any one who will mark and digest what is written, just how vitally essential evaluative judgment is in our world. There have been long centuries when errors in judgment were quickly buried; but now we risk

burying ourselves with our miscalculations.

Guided by Christian love, by compassion, science could enable us to build a better life for ourselves and all others; yet it is actually hurrying us toward our destruction. It does so because we rely on it and its products instead of our own powers of vision, evaluation, and co-operation; because we insist on retaining our prejudgments and even our supersitions, rather than trying to think things through; and because we are bewildered by the results of our own ingenuity. If we get down to the exercise of judgment based on the activity of such intellects as have created our scientific era, we can make life well worth while. If we continue to contemn our own powers of reason, judgment, and compassion, and to proceed as we are going, we can anticipate only the worst—and it will all happen in a very few years. It is up to us, not science.

The urbanity and humor of Mr. Russell's essay, the penetration and clarity of his presentation, the precision of his style and of his wit—all are here again. It is not only the part of wisdom to attend Mr. Russell:

it is a fascinating and rewarding adventure.

Conant, James Bryant, Education and Liberty: The Role of the School in a Modern Democracy, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1953. Pp. xii + 168.

Mr. Conant tells us in the preface (pp. vii-xii) to this small volume that it contains the three Page-Arbour Lectures which he gave upon invitation at the University of Virginia. These lectures, based in part on a trip to the Antipodes in the summer of 1951, are somewhat revised and expanded as they are presented in book form.

These three lectures are as follows:

I. The Anglo-Saxon Tradition-(pp. 1-28)

II. The American College—(pp. 29-54)

III. Looking Ahead—(pp. 55-87)

Copious notes on the three lectures are found on pp. 91-155. An index (pp. 159-168) closes the book. Statistical tables are placed wherever needed throughout the book, both in the lectures and the notes. They are of great value to an understanding of the text and the references.

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Chapters one and two are highly informative, especially for the layman, for whom the lectures are definitely planned, but they contain much pertinent information for those whose business is education. Doubtless the most provocative chapter is the third, "Looking Ahead" in which Dr. Conant gives his ideas on the future of higher education in this country and makes a series of ten definite suggestions. Not everybody would agree with all of them, and there are doubtless some who would agree with none of them; everybody will have to admit, however, that they are sincere and certainly worthy of consideration. His belief that there should be no further expansion of the four-year college and more emphasis placed on a twoyear terminal program certainly will arouse discussion. Most of the ideas are not new, as the author tells us, but they are worthy of consideration and will have to be considered in any further planning of the course our system of higher education must take in the years to come. This book, coming from one so capable and so well equipped as is Dr. Conant, should be read and pondered by all those who will have to deal with the problems of the education of our youth in the next years when students in increasingly greater numbers will be seeking admission to schools of higher learning.

> WILLIAM MARION MILLER Miami University

Ginzberg, Eli and Bray, Douglas W., *The Uneducated*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1953. Pp. xxv + 246.

This first publication of Columbia's Conservation of Human Resources Project deals with the decline of illiteracy in the United States during the last sixty years, against a background of social development and military action. It is hardly flattering to a nation that prides itself on educational facilities for all, that at the beginning of World War II a million and a half men in the range liable for military service had less than five years of schooling. So many men otherwise suitable for military service were rejected on the grounds of illiteracy that the Army instituted centers where illiterate draftees might become basically literate. 255,000 soldiers were graduated from Special Training Units. The conduct of the great majority of these men was so acceptable as to lead the authors to urge continuation of the policy.

As might be suspected, the greatest proportion of illiterates came from those parts of the country in which there is a mixture of races and ancestry: the Southeast, with its great Negro population, and the Southwest, with its Indians and Mexican immigrants. Furthermore, the migratory population contributes a larger number of children without opportunity to attend

There are also great difficulties attendant on migrations of Negroes

from the South, where their educational opportunities in agricultural districts are meager, to the North, where the problems of assimilation are intense. The Southern States, hampered by financial troubles, are not able to do as much as they would; and consequently the authors feel that Federal assistance would be of advantage not only to them, but to the whole country, at war or at peace. The South is making a tremendous effort to educate white and Negro children, but is not able to bear such a burden as satisfactory education costs.

The Armed Services have arguments to show that induction and education of illiterates is an expensive and questionable addition to their already complex problems. The authors point out, however, that arguments in favor of such fundamental training as was given during World War II show it to be desirable from both military and social points of view. "There is an obligation to the individual and to the nation that service

be as nearly universal as possible."

Each year "125,000 illiterate children are moving past the compulsory attendance ages." This book shows not only the nature and the magnitude of the problem, but also what has been done to alleviate it, and also much that may yet be done toward the elimination of what is oppressive to our fellow citizens and debilitating to our national welfare. "In the struggle in which the United States and the other free nations are currently engaged to maintain their way of life, our strength lies in the quality of our human resources—in the competence, imagination and dedication of the population—not in sheer numbers. . . . The welfare and security of the United States, in fact of the free world, have come to depend upon granting every individual citizen the opportunity for the full development and utilization of his human potentialities."

Traxler, Arthur E., ed., Modern Educational Problems, Washington: A.C.E., 1953. Pp. viii + 147.

The Report of the Seventeenth Educational Conference, New York City, October 30-31, 1952, Held under the Auspices of the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education, contains a number of unusually interesting and lucid discussions. Several of the papers are of a general nature, among them "The Danger of Complacency," by I. L. Kandel, an excellent therapeutic dose for the academic profession; and "Notions and Nations," by Mildred McAfee Horton, dealing with responsibility for overcoming international misconceptions and misunderstandings.

The more technical discussions are concerned with testing, guidance, projective techniques, basic skills, and reading skills. Although they are principally concerned with pupils below college level, there is a great

deal of sound sense in what is presented. It is especially gratifying to observe that no one was riding a hobby, and that all were most co-operative in making their presentations. The Conference is to be congratulated on doing a good job, and making it available to all who are interested in education.

Toward Unity in Educational Policy: Report of the Annual Meeting of the Organization Members of the American Council on Education, Washington D.C., January 30-31, 1953, Edited by Raymond F. Howes, Washington: A.C.E., 1953. Pp. x + 223.

This report is unusually informing, perhaps especially so to registrars and admissions officers, because of the brief but sufficient resume of the various veterans' bills, their history, and their development in operation. There is also, by Congressman Olin E. Teague, an illuminating explanation of changes from P.L. 346 to P.L. 550. There is also informative explanation of ROTC prospects and plans in all branches of the Service, along with some sharp criticism and reply to it. However exasperating details may become, it is gratifying to see that those responsible for our political welfare and for our military program are eager to co-operate in educational planning, to the benefit of our students, veteran and nonveteran alike.

The problems of expanding needs of education, the shortage of teachers, increasing responsibilities for women and education for them, and preparation for world responsibilities are all presented with vigor but at the same time with consideration for other points of view. There is much sound sense in the discussion of ways and means of achieving public understanding of education, especially in the comments of John C. Adams and Ralph E. Himstead on the repressive activities of some of our contemporaries and their probable consequences.

Among the general addresses, all of which repay reading, that of Gordon Keith Chalmers, criticizing popular conceptions of education, is especially stimulating. "Education to condition the attitude and to achieve social reform," he says, "is behind the times; it is related primarily to internal American social problems of recent date, based on sentimental ideas of the individual and the arts, and contrary in many of its theories to the central ethical task which now confronts young Americans abroad and their cousins at home." Mr. Chalmers speaks with spirit, but nowhere does he call in question the integrity of those who are of another persuasion.

In curious contrast to him, and for that matter to every one else on the program, Robert D. Calkins, President of the Brookings Institution, in looking to the future in institutional finance, impugns the motives and the

honesty of college professors. Of committees of professors working on educational reforms, he says: "The committee members are motivated, if the truth is to be admitted, more by tradition, personal predilection, and a desire to maintain personal standards of scholarship, than by any notable spirit of scientific inquiry or of imaginative zeal to serve the educational requirements of students in a world of rapid change." He also says that "too many professors, using methods beneath the standards of honest inquiry, will defend a colleague almost without question, especially against the charge of communism."

Of educational associations he says: "How much more statesmanlike it could be if, instead of passing resolutions of censure and threatening to destroy educational institutions whose policies they reject, those associations with a high sense of responsibility for scholarship offered their good offices to find a solution of faculty-trustee difficulties without weakening an institution and without discrediting education and educators in the

process."

Either Mr. Calkins does not know that there is a difference between legal process and irresponsible accusation by some one not actionable for libel, and has no remote notion of the procedures of the AAUP, or else he simply cannot bear the thought of having any one dispute the absolute authority of educational administrators. The conduct of professors, says Mr. Calkins, makes it hard to persuade people to give money to educational institutions and for educational purposes.

"The Enquiry in England," wrote William Blake generations ago, "is not whether a Man has Talents & Genius! But whether he is Passive & Polite & a Virtuous Ass, & obedient to Noblemen's Opinions in Art &

Science. If he is, he is a Good Man. If Not, he must be Starved."

# In the Journals

E. T.

The July-August issue of Religious Education, the official publication of the Religious Education Association, is devoted to a Symposium on Religion and Higher Education. Protestant, Catholic and Jewish leaders have contributed. The independent college, the tax-supported institution, the state university and the graduate school are represented.

President J. S. Bixler of Colby College believes the aims of the independent college should be defined in terms of the intellectual and critical quest for truth. The quest for truth is essentially one with the quest for God. It is important that the college bring out this idea in order to get rid

of difficulties and conflicts in the students' minds.

Ordway Tead discusses possible program approaches to realize a strengthening of spiritual insights for many more students. Within our present course framework the student might be made aware of religious influences which have permeated our historic cultural growth and of the philosophic and reflective aspects of religious inquiry and concern. Dr. Tead warns against too great stress on sectarian separatisms, denominational doctrines and ritual in the organized religious bodies on the campus. Spiritual maturity of teachers and counselors and time for meditation and contemplation are of great help to the student's spiritual welfare. Dr. Tead believes that "..., the deep justification of all college instruction has to do with the strengthening ... of the integrity of the individual spirit as related to an ultimate Master Spirit."

The work of the Protestant Foundations, of the Newman Club, and of the Hillel Foundation in secular colleges and universities, the aims of the Catholic college, and ideas for a Protestant University are subjects of

separate articles.

The efforts of the College of the City of New York to bring religion into the curriculum by introducing a few elective courses in religion and by an experiment with a few sections of a general education sequence with religion as the integrating means are presented by George W. Edwards, Professor of Economics.

Edward W. Blakeman of the Pacific School of Religion in Berkeley, California, reports on a ten-year study of curricular religion in state universities. He lists advantages and disadvantages of some different approaches accounts and

proaches encountered.

Franklin H. Littell, Dean of the Chapel at Boston University has observed some phenomena which lead him to conclude that there is an

optimum size of about 75 for an effective student fellowship. It is wiser to multiply the number of such fellowships rather than to try to increase

the membership of a fellowship beyond this number.

The one agreement to be found in this symposium is that there is an urgency for more effective teaching of religion that will reach all students. We seem to be a long way from fulfilling that need and there are many obstacles.

Secular Education for Religion, an article by S. A. Nock of Pace College in the April 1953 issue of The Journal of General Education published by the University of Chicago Press, makes exceedingly clear the necessity for religious education. Mr. Nock does much more than that. He shows a way to a basic religious education of the individual which might be offered in schools and colleges "without interfering with the religious teachings of various churches, temples and congregations; without advocating specific matters of dogma, liturgy, ritual, or symbol; without encroaching on the discipline of theology; and without contemning the honest opinions of even agnostic and atheist." History shows that religion has been an activity of humanity that nothing has been able to discourage. All other disciplines show that there is a fundamental duality of man versus the universe. "Religious thought concerns itself with the historical fact . . . that men do not accept the demonstrated and experienced duality." The refusal to accept duality is based on faith. Just as the humanist, the scientist and the artist use symbols to express what cannot be stated, so religious faith is expressed through symbolic methods. Religious education in the colleges and schools could emphasize the historical fact that mankind refuses to accept the limitation of duality that rationality demonstrates. It could show that spiritual leaders have believed that men may best live in their aloneness by endeavoring to bridge the gulf between themselves and others through sympathy, compassion and loving-kindness. However, it would be undesirable for an instructor to attempt an evaluation of symbolic approaches.

Our schools may thus make the student aware of the basic problem and thus encourage him to turn to his pastor for help in learning the way best suited to him to approach a solution. The schools can show that in the experience of mankind the faith on which rejection of dualism rests is as valid as the faith on which intellectual accomplishment rests. Likewise valid is the faith that each man, as himself, is worth guiding to an

appreciation of his dignity.

Foreign Language Instruction in American Schools, Earl James Mc-Grath's introductory paper at the Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools held at Washington, D.C., appears in the May 1953 issue of Progressive Education, the magazine of The American Education Fellowship. The position of the United States as a leader of nations makes it more important that we create understanding of our objectives abroad. Psychological barriers can be lessened by the use of the everyday language of the people of other lands with as little accent as possible. Teaching of foreign languages in the elementary schools is indicated, since the best place to reach large numbers of our future citizens is in the elementary schools and languages begun in the early years are learned more precisely. New methods of teaching languages would need to be employed. There is an inadequate supply of properly trained teachers and at the beginning the program would need to be carried with improvisations and makeshifts. Mr. McGrath suggests maximum use of visual and auditory teaching materials. Television programs could make instruction more lifelike and real than auditory recordings. It is apparent that the introduction of foreign language study will not only require adjustments in the program of the various elementary grades, but also in the curriculum of the teacher training institutions.

Another paper read at this conference is printed in the July 25, 1953 issue of School and Society. Nicholas Hobbs of George Peabody College for Teachers discusses Child Development and Language Learning. The choice of age for beginning instruction in a second language should be determined by objectives sought. Individual differences should also be taken into consideration. If maximum efficiency is sought, the adult years are best; if the cultural values are considered paramount, the secondary and college level is indicated; but if fluency in a second language and ability to structure thoughts in that language is the objective, then the second language should be started in the elementary grades and continued through

later years.

## Reported to Us

#### A. H. P.

Colleges and Universities

American University has expanded its teacher training programs to include elementary level teaching.

Arnold College, the oldest co-educational institution in the United States, will be merged with the University of Bridgeport.

Baylor University has inaugurated a five-year engineering program with three years spent at Baylor and two years at the University of Texas or the Texas Technological College.

Co-operating with Perkins Institution, and Massachusetts School for the Blind, Boston University is offering a graduate program for training teachers of the blind.

Carnegie Institute of Technology has established a School of Printing Management with a curriculum leading to a B.S. degree.

With the graduation of its third and final class in June, 1953, Champlain College, a liberal arts unit of the State University of New York, has been closed. Correspondence concerning academic records of all Champlain and Associated Colleges students should be addressed to: Miss Marguerite A. Van Bree, State University of New York, College of Forestry, Syracuse 10, New York.

Clarkson College of Technology has arranged a deferred payment plan for college expenses through the Midland Trust Company, with monthly installments for board and tuition fees and at an interest rate of 23/4 per cent.

Cooper Union offers without charges pre-admission courses for applicants to the evening session of the School of Engineering who show promise in competitive entrance tests. The program is designed to assist qualified men who have been out of high school for a few years.

Duke University has established a new graduate degree, Master of Arts in Teaching.

Goucher College has inaugurated an experimental elementary teacher training program leading to the Master of Education degree and with twenty fellowships available financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

Fifty-five members of the 1953 class of Juniata College have established an investment club designed to provide a systematic plan of giving to the alumni fund of the college. The group has agreed to invest \$10 each year for ten years.

A program to qualify graduates of colleges of arts and sciences for elementary grade teaching, in order to help meet the growing demand for teachers, has been inaugurated by Kent (Ohio) State University.

A freshman at Lehigh is not permitted to have or to operate a motor vehicle until after mid-term reports of the first semester and then only if he has (1) no failing grades at mid-term, (2) no disciplinary action against him, (3) a specific request from his parents that he be permitted to have a motor vehicle at college, (4) adequate liability insurance, and (5) official permission from the dean of students.

Lincoln University, the first institution to grant collegiate degrees to Negro students, has announced plans to become an inter-racial institution. Further study will determine whether the University should become coeducational.

Intensive review courses for high school students provisionally accepted for admission to Manhattan College have been inaugurated to reduce failures, as much as possible.

The University of Maryland sponsored an Armed Services Conference in June, during which officers responsible for the educational programs of the Air Force, the Army, and the Marine Corps discussed the philosophy and general problems of collegiate education in the Armed Forces, and University representatives discussed academic problems involved in the operation of off-campus programs.

The number of grants-in-aid offered by Miami University (Oxford, Ohio) to students entering elementary education have been doubled in an effort to encourage greater numbers of high school graduates to enter the teaching profession.

Miami University offers a pre-college refresher course for high school

students planning to enter who lack the necessary background in English, mathematics, reading, and study skills.

A \$118,000 gift from the Louis W. and Maud Hill Family Foundation of St. Paul has made possible the establishment of a Center for Philosophy and Science at the University of Minnesota.

A pioneer undertaking in post-graduate education set up by a quarter million dollar grant by the Fund for the Advancement of Education to Stanford University will broaden the training of college and university instructors in certain liberal arts fields.

Five honors fellowships in humanities will be awarded annually for eight years, and a distinguished visiting professor will lead seminar courses.

A two-year curriculum in nursing is offered high school graduates at the University of Tennessee.

Under a Ford Foundation Fund for the Advancement of Education, Wesleyan University (Conn.) has set up an educational policy committee to study long-range goals and practices of the college.

Western Reserve has established a graduate program in the field of early childhood education.

Reports from Associations, Organizations, and Government Departments

The Association of Independent Colleges in Maryland has been formed by Hood College, St. John's College, Washington College, and Western Maryland College to seek financial assistance from business and industry.

The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace sponsored a conference to develop stronger relationships among universities and university people of the free world. It was attended by sixty Fulbright and American educators from sixteen countries.

Improvement in the quality of university teaching in the United States is one major goal of grants totaling \$5,021,005 announced by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The largest single grant was \$700,000 for a five-year program aimed at raising the levels of both teaching and scholarship in graduate study at universities in the South. Included among the recipients are Duke University, Emory University, University of North Carolina, Tulane University, and Vanderbilt University.

Still another series of grants is aimed at those who already have gone

into college teaching. During the year the Corporation renewed its grants to Columbia University, Harvard University, Yale University, and the University of Chicago to enable these institutions to provide "internships" for able young instructors from other colleges and universities who observe, study and participate in general education programs and then return to their regular assignments. Each of the four participating universities was granted \$72,000, making a total of \$288,000 for the project as a whole.

Another approach to the problem of raising the level of college teaching is reflected in a grant of \$50,000 to Princeton University to continue the Woodrow Wilson Fellowship program. This is designed to attract able young college graduates into college teaching by awarding them first-year

graduate fellowships to pay part of their expenses.

A plan designed to eliminate some of the waste and repetition in high school and college curriculums has been proposed by a committee of faculty members representing Harvard, Princeton, and Yale Universities and Andover, Exeter, and Lawrenceville preparatory schools. The Committee offers a seven-year program of high school and college for a limited number of carefully selected students as an initial step in eliminating the basic weakness in American education—"failure of the school and college to view their jobs as parts of a continuous process—two halves of a common enterprise."

The Empire State Foundation of Independent Liberal Arts Colleges consists of twenty-two member colleges with the primary aim of soliciting and distributing funds from individuals and business enterprises.

Under the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education's "Program for College Self Studies" grants up to \$20,000 each, will be made to institutions for evaluation studies of their work in liberal education. The study is to be carried out by their own staffs, although outside consultants can be used.

The Fund for the Advancement of Education has announced the granting of 252 one-year fellowships to college faculty members for the academic year, 1953-54. The grants, totaling nearly a million and a half dollars, are designed primarily to enable the recipients to become better qualified for teaching their respective fields, which include the humanities, the social sciences, and the natural sciences.

The Institute of International Education is organizing an "alumni office" with a world-wide scope. Its 20,000 "alumni" are being traced, and contact is being re-established with the American students who have gone abroad and the men and women from nearly eighty countries who once studied

or trained in U.S. colleges and universities through international scholarship programs administered by the institute.

The Louis W. and Maud Hill Family Foundation of St. Paul has made a grant to four local colleges to co-operate in providing undergraduate area studies in the Soviet Union, the Middle East, the Far East, or Africa.

The Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is developing institution-wide accreditation procedures in conjunction with professional organizations, and beginning this year will accredit specialized, technical, and professional institutions, working out details with twenty-six professional accrediting agencies in this country. The program of the Association provides for the re-evaluation of an accredited institution at least once every ten years.

F. Taylor Jones, an honorary member of the AACRAO serving as Executive Assistant to the Commission on Higher Education, is providing

excellent leadership in this important service to higher education.

The National Manpower Council reports to the President that only a purposeful and sustained effort can insure that the United States will have adequate resources of scientific and professional manpower to meet its needs.

In its report, "A Policy for Scientific and Professional Manpower," the Council states that if the nation is to have the required highly trained manpower, there must be a co-operative effort on the part of government, industry, educational institutions, and professional and other groups directed toward: (1) developing more reliable knowledge about our human resources; (2) strengthening the institutions which educate and train scientists and professionals; (3) maintaining a continuous, large flow of students through the colleges and universities; (4) expanding opportunities for capable young persons to secure a higher education; and (5) improving utilization of available scientific and professional personnel.

Lee M. Thurston, formerly State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Michigan, and Dean-Designate, School of Education, Michigan State College, is now Commissioner of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, succeeding Earl J. McGrath.

Six institutions, the Universities of Alabama, Maryland, North Carolina and Texas, Emory University and Vanderbilt University together with the Southern Regional Education Board are planning a regional graduate program in nursing beginning in the fall of 1954. Each institution will emphasize work in a particular field.

Under the direction of civic, parent, women's, and service groups, residents of Attleboro, Massachusetts, have established a Scholarship Foundation to aid needy high school graduates who seek to enter college.

Standard Oil of Indiana has made available a fund of \$150,000 for distribution during 1953 to "liberal arts colleges maintaining high-quality four-year programs" in the fourteen mid-western states served by the Company.

The Veterans' Administration has reported that 76,000 Korean veterans were attending colleges and universities in March, 1953.

The John Hay Whitney Foundation granted scholarships last year valued at \$100,000 to fifty-two persons in twenty states and six territories.

The Upper Midwest Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers will meet on October 26 and 27 at Macalester College, St. Paul. The program will include a summary of recent studies in college admissions with special emphasis on the personality factors associated with college success.

### News Concerning Registrars and Admissions Officers

After 33 years of service at Bradley University, the past eighteen of which were as Registrar, Asa Carter has been named Director of Institutional Studies. Mr. Carter is a past president of the Illinois Registrars' Association and has been active in the AACRAO.

Orville Nothdurft has been appointed Director of Admissions and Registrar. Mr. Nothdurft has served as Director of Admissions at Illinois Wesleyan University. Raymond E. Strand resigned as Director of Admissions to accept a position on the West Coast.

William G. Fletcher has been appointed Director of Admissions at the University of Delaware succeeding Charles W. Bush, who retired June 30.

Mrs. Value M. Williams is serving as Registrar of DePauw University, succeeding Veneta Kunter, deceased.

Miss Gertrude Allen, Records' Clerk, University of Detroit, was given a watch in gratitude of twenty-five years of service to the University in the office of the registrar.

John Gordon Stipe, Vice-President, Emory University, died June 8, 1953, at the age of sixty-seven years. Dr. Stipe had served the university

as Registrar from 1919 to 1939 and as Director of Admissions during 1939. He was an active member of our Association for a number of years.

William F. Greenip, Assistant Director of Admissions, Lafayette College, has been named Director of Admissions, succeeding Charles R. Hulac who accepted a commission from the American Friends of the Middle East.

Robert Humbertson has succeeded Lacy D. Powell as Registrar and Dean of Students at Lee College, Cleveland, Tennessee.

William K. Selden, Recorder, Northwestern University, has been appointed President, Illinois College.

We learn with regret of the resignation of Robert C. Story, in charge of Statistical Services, in the U.S. Office of Education, Research and Statistical Section. Working in close co-operation with our Association in the preparation of annual enrollment reports and other important statistical studies, he has proved a helpful adviser to many of our members. The Office of Education and our membership have suffered a serious loss in his resignation; and it will be difficult to fill his place, for he had earned for himself great respect for outstanding ability and a fine spirit of co-operation.

Abbot S. M. Killeen has been named Acting Registrar at St. Norbert College, succeeding Rev. F. F. Dupont, who has served for twenty years as registrar.

D. B. Doner has been named Director of Admissions and Records of South Dakota State College, the title having been changed from that of Registrar. Harvey E. Johnson is Assistant Director of Admissions and Records, and Mrs. Lela L. Smith is Assistant, Records. The name of the office was changed from Registrar's Office to Office of Admissions and Records.

Stanley R. Harris, formerly Superintendent of the West Virginia Schools for the Deaf and Blind, has been named Assistant Registrar, West Virginia University, to succeed Lyle E. Herod, who resigned to assume the post of Registrar and Director of Admissions, Alderson-Broaddus College.

Mr. James A. Harmon has succeeded Mr. James Gannett as Registrar of the University of Maine. (A note about Mr. Gannett's retirement appears on page 145). Mr. Harmon was a member of the mathematics staff and Assistant to the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences.

Theodore C. Mercer, formerly Registrar of Bob Jones University, is now Director of Publicity at Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio.

# On the Retirement of James A. Gannett

On April 23, 1953 it was announced from Orono, Maine that James A. Gannett, Registrar of the University of Maine, would retire in August. Jim, as he is known to his host of friends, has served his institution for 45 years and he has been Registrar for 40 years. He is the oldest staff member of the University in point of service, having been with the institution continuously since receiving his degree in electrical engineering from Maine in 1908. He served as Commercial Secretary for the University for five years after graduation and was named Registrar in 1913.

Thus Jim became Registrar only three years after the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers was organized. He at once became active in the Association as evidenced by the fact that in 1922 he became its eighth president and served the Association in this capacity for two years. In 1953 he was the only one of the first eight presidents still active in the Association. Jim has seen the Association grow from a membership of 62 in 1914 to its present size. In 1924 when Jim presided at the meetings of our Association in Chicago there was an attendance of 160, as compared to 23 who attended the 1913 convention in Salt Lake City the year he became a registrar. Jim professionally has virtually grown up with our Association. He has continued active all these years in its deliberations. He has rarely missed a convention.

In 1928 his institution awarded Jim the honorary degree of Master of Arts. The citation read in part as follows: ". . . friend and counselor of youth, your upright conduct, honesty of purpose, integrity, and devotion

to your work have won the love and esteem of all."

In 1947 he was awarded the Alumni Service Emblem by the General Alumni Association of the University of Maine, "in recognition of outstanding service rendered through the Alumni Association to the University of Maine."

Jim was married on Christmas Day 1949 to Mrs. Marian Hill Fielder. President Hauck in commenting upon Jim's retirement has said that he "has been 'Mr. University' to thousands of undergraduates and alumni."

Quiet, dignified, unpretentious, sound of judgment, Jim has a host of friends in our Association who wish him well in his retirement and who will miss his friendly smile and his advice—given freely when it has been sought.

G.P.T,

# Pre-Legal Education

# A Statement of Policy

(Published by request of the Association of American Law Schools, and as a service to the members of AACRAO)

Law schools are necessarily vitally concerned with the quality of the preparation which students entering upon the study of law bring with them from their undergraduate experiences. For unless that preparation has been of high quality, the law schools can not, in the additional time which they can fairly require of their students, equip them for satisfactory performance within the legal profession and the democratic community.

The Association of American Law Schools and Pre-Legal Education

The Association of American Law Schools is an organization of schools with the purpose of improving the legal profession through legal education. There is no other comparable organization of schools in the United States. Consequently, the Association has felt that it has an obligation to utilize its unique resources to set forth here, as clearly and briefly as the present state of its continuing study permits, exactly those aspects of pre-legal education it considers most helpful in the study of law and fulfillment of

a legal career.

In so doing, the Association has had a number of purposes in mind. For its own use, it has wanted to consolidate its work into a summary statement, both as a prelude to improvements which future efforts will no doubt achieve, and as a point of departure for making the judgments concerning pre-legal education which come its way from time to time, as, for example, in determining requirements and standards relating to pre-legal education for those law schools which wish to become, or to remain, members of the Association. It has seemed, also, that such a summary statement would be useful to colleges and other institutions of learning preparing students for law study as well as to advisers of pre-legal students and pre-legal students themselves.

## Foreword: Principles and Limitations

The Association considers certain principles to be controlling. In addition, it is aware of certain limitations in the usefulness of this Statement by others than the Association itself. These principles and limitations are recognized to include the following items. The first two are primarily of interest to educators. The remaining six are of more general interest.

1. Education of students for a full life is far more important than mere

education for later professional training and practice. Consequently, there is no attempt here to suggest to the colleges and secondary schools that they sacrifice the former to the latter. At the same time, the Association believes that there is little, if any, conflict between these objectives when a student's goal is the later study of law. All institutions involved are interested in education for citizenship in the world community. The Association feels that the mental accomplishments set forth in the "Recommended Pre-Law Program," which follows, are already in the tradition of liberal education and that, in their devotion to this tradition, experimentation by the undergraduate schools and colleges better to provide this training coincides with Association objectives.

II. In fact, since many of the goals of legal education are also goals of liberal education, the effort of this Statement to segregate aspects of prelegal education which are relevant to professional legal education results only in emphasizing a part of the opportunities available in most undergraduate institutions—but to no greater degree than would be required by selection for most non-professional purposes. From this overlapping of goals it follows that the Association, while interested primarily in those goals which are pre-professional, must record itself as an ally of efforts to improve secondary and collegiate education on the widest front.

III. The views as to pre-legal education here expressed are preferences useful to pre-professional school students who have decided upon the subsequent study of law. This Statement does not assert that failure to have followed its recommendations will result in disaster in law school. Nor does it purport to foreclose a route to that study which is based on some combination of other professional training, like engineering, with law. The Statement does assert to pre-professional school students that, if their plan is to study law, absent special circumstances, they will do best to heed its recommendations. Students in a position to utilize Association policy in this regard will have considerable liberty to indulge individual tastes without the irritation of curricular strait-jackets.

IV. Other things being equal, the pre-law student will be well advised to take advantage of the best undergraduate teaching available in his institution, as he may ascertain that fact with the aid of qualified and informed advisers.

V. In whatever way the student may undertake to accomplish the objectives set forth in the "Recommended Pre-Law Program" below, it is important that he should place himself in a position which will try his capacities to the utmost. The experience of working as hard as he is able will help him to acquire habits of discipline which will stand him in good stead in the law.

VI. Intellectual maturity and devoted allegiance to such homely virtues as honesty and integrity are indispensable aims of pre-legal as well as

legal education. These ends should be constant aspirations. However, there is no known way exclusively to allocate their acquisition to any formal or extracurricular instruction, nor to guarantee them after any particular

age has been reached or time spent in school.

VII. In the nature of its position as an association of national scope, the Association can not render this Statement in the degree of particularity which would be possible if it were dealing with a single undergraduate institution as of a given time. It is feasible for it, however, to set forth guides to particularization by those acquainted with the situation prevailing in an undergraduate institution at a certain time. The "Recommended Pre-Law Program," which follows, considered with the rest of this Statement, can furnish such a guide. Advisers are invited to use it, translated into the choices open in their institutions when their advice is to be acted upon. If undergraduate advisers at institutions not a part of a university with a law school desire assistance in any such specification they may consult with the Association of American Law Schools through its Panel of Law School Advisers or its Committee on Pre-Legal Education.\* Otherwise, they may obtain help from their affiliated law schools. It should also be pointed out to pre-law students and their advisers that a number of law schools have prepared statements consistent with this one. When prepared, these statements should be consulted with special care by the student preparing for the study of law at the law school issuing the statement. In these respects, the Association recognizes the already great responsibility of pre-legal advisers and faculties of law in matters of prelegal education.

VIII. The Association's responsibility in matters of pre-legal education can not best be met by prescribing certain courses and extracurricular activities for students planning later to study law. Such an endeavor is foreclosed by the wide range of a lawyer's tasks, and the correspondingly wide range for choice of relevant pre-law preparation. More important, any attempt to prescribe a single course of preparatory work would be invalidated by the fact that the quality of instruction necessarily varies among subjectmatter areas and among schools. In one negative respect, however, courses should be mentioned specifically. So called "law" courses in undergraduate instruction should be avoided. Generally they are not intended as education

for lawyers but for other purposes.

## Objectives of Pre-Legal Education

But while it considers the prescription of particular courses unwise, the Association can properly call attention to the quality of undergraduate

<sup>\*</sup> Names and addresses obtainable by writing the Dean of any school which is a member of the Association of American Law Schools.

instruction which it believes fundamental to the later attainment of legal competence. That quality of education is concerned with the development in pre-law students of basic skills and insights. It thus involves education for:

A. Comprehension and expression in words;

B. Critical understanding of the human institutions and values with which the law deals; and

c. Creative power in thinking.

The development of these fundamental capacities is not the monopoly of any one subject-matter area, department, or division. Rather, their development is the result of a highly individualized process pursued with high purpose and intensive intellectual effort by persons with at least a reasonable degree of native intelligence. Perhaps the most important variable ingredient of a proper climate for this process is the quality of undergraduate instruction. Certainly it is not any particular course or combination of courses. Shortly stated, what the law schools seek in their entering students is not accomplishment in mere memorization but accomplishment in understanding, the capacity to think for themselves, and the ability to express their thoughts with clarity and force.

#### Recommended Pre-Law Program

#### A. EDUCATION FOR COMPREHENSION AND EXPRESSION IN WORDS

The purpose here is to gain both perception and skill in the English language. Language is the lawyer's working tool. He must be able, in the drafting of legal instruments, to convey meaning clearly and effectively. In oral and written advocacy he must be capable of communicating ideas convincingly and concisely. In reception no less than in expression, language is fundamental as the lawyer's medium of communication. For the lawyer must be able to grasp the exact meaning of factual statements and legal instruments, to catch the fine points of legal reasoning and argument, and to comprehend the technical materials which constitute the body of the law. To acquire sufficient capacity for communication calls for extensive practice in all phases of the art. Truly, the law-trained man, if he is to perform effectively the tasks expected of him, must be a precisionist in the use of language.

What is needed, therefore, is the skill which can be obtained only

through practice in:

 Expression: adequate vocabulary, familiarity with modern usage, grammatical correctness, organized presentation, conciseness and clarity of statement in writing and speaking.

2. Comprehension: concentration and effective recollection in reading and listen-

ing, perception of meaning conveyed by verbal symbols.

Both expression and comprehension also require developed sensitivity to:

- Fluidity of language: varying meanings of words in different times and contexts, shades of meaning, interpretive problems, hazards in use of ambiguous terms.
- Deceptiveness of language: emotionally-charged words, catch phrases, hidden meanings of words, empty generalizations.

#### B. EDUCATION FOR CRITICAL UNDERSTANDING OF HUMAN INSTITUTIONS AND VALUES

The purpose here is to develop insight into, rather than merely information about, the institutions and values with which man is concerned. One pursuing a legal career encounters all sorts of these institutions under circumstances in which his conduct necessarily shapes the conduct of others in their value choices: examples are marriage and the conduct of parties to it; business and the actions of sellers and buyers, stockholders and directors, employers and employees; government and individuals concerned with or subject to taxation, regulation of trade practices, and development of atomic energy; private property and its protection and utilization. The lawyer is a force in the operation and shaping of these institutions. It is vital that he perform his work with a consciousness that his conduct counts in the choice of preferable means and ends. This insight comes from intensive study for a substantial period of such of the following areas as he may feasibly undertake, rather than from attempts to skim all the large areas listed. "Study" includes dealing with people in these contexts and reflecting upon the experience thus gained.

Important to the gaining of this insight would be a grasp of:

The nature of man and the physical world of which he is a part: stimuli
which move him to action, internal and external limitations upon the development of understanding and reason, man's ability to plan conduct and the
function of value choices in his planning.

The economic systems of societies: theoretical foundations, imperfections in practice, business patterns, the function of governmental processes in economic

control.

3. The political organizations of societies: basic theories, modern complexities,

the relation of politics to law.

4. The democratic processes in Western societies, especially: responsiveness of governmental policy to popular will, art of compromise, role of education and discussion, functions of majorities and minorities, methods of reconciling competing interests, requirements for participating effectively in world society, degree of efficiency self-government permits, awareness of the moral values inherent in these processes.

The social structures of societies: functions of individuals and groups such as the family and churches, implications of the service state, governmental

processes in social control, control of the atypical person.

6. The cultural heritages of Western societies, including philosophy and ethics; freedom for the individual; traditions of humility, brotherhood, and service; inevitability of change and the art of peaceful, orderly adaptation to change.

#### C. EDUCATION FOR CREATIVE POWER IN THINKING

The purpose here is to develop a power to think clearly, carefully, and independently. A large part of the work the law-trained man is called upon to do calls for problem-solving and sound judgment. This is true regardless of whether he devotes his life to the practice of law, to governmental administration, or to being a judge, legislator, teacher or scholar, or to some other endeavor. He will be called upon to create or give advice concerning an almost infinite number of relationships. These relationships may range from a comparatively simple contract between a buyer and seller of goods through tailoring a highly complex corporate structure to the needs of a business or non-profit organization. Any task to which he will be called can be done better if he possesses this power of creative thinking. Predicting the outcome of even routine litigation may involve considering whether a hitherto well-settled rule of law which is applicable would, in the light of the particular facts of the case, possibly be modified or reshaped to avoid unfairness and practical inconvenience. Here, the power to think creatively will often merge with critical understanding of human institutions and values, with the latter serving as the necessary threshold to creative power.

Creative power in thinking requires the development of skill in:

- Research: awareness of sources and types of material, adaptation to particular use, methods of fact presentation.
- 2. Fact completeness: willingness to recognize all facts, avoidance of preconception and fiction masquerading as fact, disciplined ability to withhold judgement until all facts are "in."
- Fact differentiation: relevance of facts to particular issues, varying importance of different facts, relative persuasiveness of various facts.
- Fact marshalling: reduction of masses of fact to manageable proportions, arrangement of facts in logical and convincing order.
- Deductive reasoning: use of the syllogism, spotting logical fallacies, avoiding conclusions flowing from inaccurate premises.
- 6. Inductive reasoning: experimental methodology, accuracy of observation, elimination of variables, role of hypotheses, conditions essential to valid generalization such as adequacy of sampling, strict limitation of conclusions by available reliable data.
- Reasoning by analogy: methods of classification, gradations of relationship, finding resemblances which justify inferences of similarity.
- Critical analysis: disciplined skepticism in approach, thoroughness of inquiry, keenness of mind in cutting through to essentials.
- Constructive synthesis: systematic formulation of principles, meaningful organization of ideas, structural relationship of concepts.
- Power of decision: resolution of discoverable issues in the light of short- and long-term ends found preferable on explicitly identified and justified grounds.

#### Conclusion

With the foregoing in mind the application of the above objectives and recommended pre-legal program in the light of their controlling principles

and limitations can be suggested briefly. A particular undergraduate student's reasoning processes may better be developed at a particular institution, for example, by work with a specified teacher of biology than with another teacher of logic, his understanding of cultural heritages may be deepened more by some then available courses in literature than by ones open to him in religion, his facility in comprehension and expression in language conceivably strengthened as much or more by work with a history teacher as by some studies in speech or English composition, and his capacity for the handling of facts increased as well by the study of zoology as by the study of sociology, all according to the circumstances obtaining at the particular college and the background of the individual student. In sum, the program of pre-legal education which is here earnestly suggested is to be secured through such courses and other work as the student's vital interests, his counsellor's judgment as to the quality of instruction, and the facilities of the particular undergraduate school or college dictate in each individual case, considering the development of the student as of the time relevant decisions as to his pre-legal program are to be carried out.

## A.A.C.R.A.O.—Treasurer's Report, 1952-53

June 9, 1953

The Executive Committee
American Association of Collegiate Registrars
and Admissions Officers

#### GENTLEMEN:

We have made an examination of the cash receipts and disbursements as recorded on the books of the AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1953.

All cash receipts as recorded on the books were traced to bank deposits for the year. We examined or accounted for all checks issued during the year and tested disbursements to invoices and vouchers.

Cash on deposit of \$10,539.20 at May 31, 1953 was reconciled with a certificate received direct from the bank. Petty cash funds totaling \$50.00 were held by the editor and subscription manager and were confirmed by correspondence. United States Treasury and Savings Bonds of \$14,700.00 were examined and all interest receivable during the year was accounted for. At May 31, 1953 there was a liability of \$39.00 for federal withholding tax deducted from April and May payrolls.

In our opinion, based upon our examination of the books and records of the AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS, the accompanying statement presents fairly a summary of cash receipts and disbursements of the Association for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1953.

Very truly yours, SWANSON OGILVIE & MCKENZIE By HAROLD W. MCKENZIE Certified Public Accountant

#### GENERAL COMMENTS

Cash receipts of \$21,631.72 for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1953 exceeded cash disbursements of \$15,095.74 by \$6,535.98, as summarized in Exhibit I. Investments in government securities were increased during the year by the purchase of \$7,500.00 cost value of United States Savings Bonds, Series K. Cash and securities totaled \$25,289.20 at May 31, 1953.

A detailed statement of cash receipts and disbursements and comparison with the budget for the fiscal year, as prepared by the office of the treasurer, is shown in Exhibit II. We reviewed the distribution of receipts and disbursements to the various accounts and tested the accuracy of accumulating the detail.

At May 31, 1953, advertising income of \$43.37 was receivable from advertisers in College and University. Advertising revenue is reflected in income when collected. We compared all advertising revenue for the fiscal year with copies of College and University.

# AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

(A Non-profit Organization)

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS
For the Fiscal Year Ended May 31, 1953

Cash and Securities at June 1, 1952

Cash in Bank ......\$11,490.22

Petty Cash Funds	2,200.00	
	\$18,750.22	
Less—Federal Withholding Tax Payable as of June 1, 1952		\$18,714.22
Add-Receipts		
Memberships—Renewal         \$19,353.00           New         400.00	\$19,753.00	
Subscriptions	798.50	
Advertising		
Interest on U.S. Treasury and Savings Bonds	283.50	21,631.72
Total		\$40.345.94
Deduct—Disbursements		
General Administration	2,911.91	
1953 Convention—Minneapolis, Minnesota	1,074.01*	
Editor's Office	6,815.02	
Treasurer's Office	1,428.93	
Committee on Evaluation and Standards	53.64	
Committee on Special Projects	3,404.55	
Committee on Office Forms	125.00	
Committee on International Scholarships	505.25	
Committee on Co-operation with Governmental Agencies	419.42	
Committee on Regional Associations	378.45	
Committee on Constitution and By-Laws		
Contingency Fund	127.58	15,095.74
Cash and Securities at May 31, 1953		\$25,250.20
Consisting of		
Consisting of Cash in Bank	10 520 20	
Petty Cash Funds		•
	50.00	
U.S. Treasury Bonds—At Cost—Per Value	2,200.00	
U.S. Savings Bonds, Series G, At Cost U.S. Savings Bonds, Series K, At Cost	5,000.00 7,500.00	
-	25,289.20	
Less-Federal Withholding Tax Payable as of May	47,407.40	
31, 1953	39.00	
Net\$	25,250,20	

Increases in cash and securities for the fiscal year ended May 31, 1953—\$6,535.98.

<sup>\*</sup> Excess of convention receipts over disbursements.

# Directory of Registrars and Admissions Officers in Member Institutions of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers\*\*

#### ALABAMA

Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, Normal, R. A. Carter, Dean; Louis C. Goodwin, Assistant Professor of Social Sciences (on Leave)

Alabama College, The State College for Women, Montevalio, Virginia Hendrick, Registrar

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Charles W. Edwards, Registrar Alabama State College for Negroes, Montgomery, J. T. Brooks, Registrar University of Alabama, University, William F. Adams, Dean of Admissions

Athens College, Athens, Edwin C. Price, Registrar

· Birmingham Southern College, Birmingham, W. E. Glenn, Registrar

Howard College, Birmingham, Carl E. Todd, Registrar Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Jean Rogers, Recorder Judson College, Marion, Robert Bowling, Dean and Registrar Miles College, Birmingham, Marjorie L. Hopkins, Registrar

Spring Hill College, Spring Hill, Mobile County, Louis J. Boudousquie, Registrar State Teachers College, Florence, Chester M. Arehart, Registrar

State Teachers College, Jacksonville, The Registrar

· Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee Institute, T. C. Burnette, Registrar

#### ALASKA

University of Alaska, College, The Registrar

#### ARIZONA

Arizona State College, Tempe, Alfred Thomas, Jr., Registrar and Director of Admissions

University of Arizona, Tucson

Eastern Arizona Junior College, Thatcher, LaVon Evans, Registrar

Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, J. Lee Thompson, Registrar

#### **ARKANSAS**

Agricultural, Mechanical and Normal College, Pine Bluff, Mrs. Charlie S. Henderson, Registrar

Two or more names are listed for an institution only where a corresponding number of memberships is held.

<sup>\*</sup> Editor's Note: Many institutions prefer to keep their memberships in a title, such as "The Registrar," rather than in the name of an individual. Since this is a Directory rather than an official membership list, the names of individuals have been supplied so far as possible. Both the Editor and the Treasurer would welcome information about further corrections or changes.

Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Monticello, L. D. Griffin, Registrar Arkansas Baptist College, Little Rock, Mrs. Ethel M. Beckley, Registrar

Arkansas College, Batesville, Roberta T. Dorr, Registrar

Arkansas Polytechnic College, Russellville, G. R. Turrentine, Registrar

Arkansas State College, Jonesboro, Baird V. Keister, Registrar

Arkansas State Teachers College, Normal Station, Conway, G. T. Short, Recorder

\* University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Fred L. Kerr, Registrar; J. Bruce Kellar,

Assistant Registrar; F. G. Maddox, Assistant Registrar

The College of the Ozarks, Clarksville, Mrs. Lucille Patterson, Registrar Dunbar Junior College, Little Rock, Mrs. Marguerite K. Alston, Registrar

· Harding College, Searcy, W. K. Summit, Registrar

Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, C. B. Cooper, Registrar John Brown University, Siloam Springs, Roger F. Cox, Registrar

Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock, Mrs. Jewell Reynolds, Registrar

Ouachita College, Arkadelphia, Frances Crawford, Registrar Philander Smith College, Little Rock, The Registrar Southern Baptist College, Walnut Ridge, The Registrar

Southern State College, Magnolia, Matsye Gantt, Registrar

#### **CALIFORNIA**

Armstrong College, Berkeley, J. Evan Armstrong, President
Bakersfield College, Bakersfield, Burns L. Finlinson, Dean of Records
The Bible Institute of Los Angeles, Los Angeles, James H. Christian, Registrar
Cal-Aero Technical Institute, Glendale, J. D. Strickland, Registrar
California Baptist Theological Seminary, Covina, Carl Henry Koeker, Registrar
California College of Arts and Crafts, Oakland, Merle A. Quait, Registrar
California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, L. W. Jones, Registrar
California State Polytechnic College, San Luis Obispo, Leo F. Philbin, Registrar

· University of California, Berkeley, H. A. Spindt, Director of Admissions

· University of California, Davis, Howard B. Shontz, Registrar

University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles, William C. Pomeroy, Registrar; Edgar L. Lazier, Associate Director of Admissions
 University of California, Riverside, Clinton C. Gilliam, Registrar and Admissions

Officer

 University of California, Santa Barbara College, Santa Barbara, Jerry H. Clark, Registrar

Chapman College, Los Angeles, The Registrar

Chico State College, Chico, Wallin J. Carlson, Registrar

The Claremont Graduate School, Claremont, Mrs. Urith S. Abbott, Registrar

Claremont Men's College, Claremont, Ruth Witten, Registrar

Compton Junior College, Compton, Holland A. Spurgin, Dean of Records Dominican College of San Rafael, San Rafael, Sister Mary Anita, Registrar

East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Logan Hart, Dean of Admissions and Records

Fresno State College, Fresno, Wilma F. Wight, Registrar

Fuller Theological Seminary, Pasadena, Harold Lindsell, Dean George Pepperdine College, Los Angeles, George R. Huff, Registrar

George Pepperdine College, Los Angeles, George R. Huff, Registrar
 Golden Gate Baptist Theological Seminary, Berkeley, Jack W. Manning, Registrar

Golden Gate Baptist Theological Seminary, Berkeley, Jack W. Manning, Registrar Golden Gate College, San Francisco, Mrs. Mary M. Morgan, Registrar; Robert D. Eddy, Dean of Admissions and Guidance

Grant Technical College, Del Paso Heights, Shirley Thurman, Dean of Women and Registrar

Hartnell College, Salinas, Jerry H. Girdner, Dean of Guidance and Registrar College of the Holy Names, Oakland, Sister Andrew, Registrar

Humboldt State College, Arcata

Immaculate Heart College, Hollywood, Mrs. Beatrice Holcomb, Registrar

John Muir College, Pasadena, Dean of Student Personnel La Sierra College, Arlington, Willette Carlsen, Registrar

La Verne College, La Verne, J. C. Brandt, Registrar Long Beach State College, Long Beach, Clarence R. Bergland, Admissions Officer Los Angeles Baptist Theological Seminary, Los Angeles, Lawrence H. Starkey, Registrar

Los Angeles City College, Los Angeles, Benjamin K. Schwartz, Registrar

Los Angeles Conservatory of Music and Arts, Los Angeles, K. R. Weidaw, Registrar Los Angeles Harbor Junior College, Wilmington, Hazel M. Wedon, Dean of Admissions and Guidance

Los Angeles Pacific College, Los Angeles, The Registrar

Los Angeles College of Optometry, Los Angeles, James F. English, Registrar-Comptroller

Los Angeles State College, Los Angeles, Robert J. Williams, Admissions Officer Loyola University of Los Angeles, Los Angeles, Catherina F. Emenaker, Registrar College of Marin, Kentfield, Marin County, Grace W. Donnan, Registrar College of Medical Evangelists, Los Angeles, Herbert A. Walls, Jr., Associate

Registrar

Menlo Junior College, Menlo Park, John D. Russell, Director of Admissions and Registrar

Mount St. Mary's College, Los Angeles, Sister Mary Teresa

Mt. San Antonio Junior College, Pomona, Hazel A. Snoke, Registrar

College of Notre Dame, Belmont, Sister Teresa Augustine, Dean and Registrar

Occidental College, Los Angeles, Florence N. Brady, Registrar

College of Osteopathic Physicians and Surgeons, Los Angeles, Benjamin W. Fullington, Director of Admissions and Registrar

College of the Pacific, Stockton, Ellen L. Deering, Registrar

Pacific Bible College of Azusa, Azusa, Malcolm R. Robertson, Registrar

Pacific School of Religion, Berkeley, Kathryn Blade, Registrar Pacific Union College, Angwin, Edwin C. Walter, Registrar

Palos Verdes College, Rolling Hills, Mrs. Eloise Eberle Kloke, Registrar

Pasadena College, Pasadena, Cecil W. Miller, Registrar Pasadena City College, Pasadena, R. W. Grinstead, Registrar

College of Physicians and Surgeons, San Francisco, E. Frank Inskipp, Registrar · Pomona College, Claremont, Edward Sanders, Dean of Students, Dean of Admissions; Margaret Maple, Registrar

University of Redlands, Redlands, Mrs. Esther Mertins, Registrar; Warren Mild, Admissions Officer

Riverside College, Riverside, Earl McDermont, Registrar

Sacramento Junior College, Sacramento, N. J. Brickley, Registrar

Sacramento State College, Sacramento

St. John's College, Los Angeles, Rev. Bernard J. McCoy, C. M., Registrar St. John's Seminary, Camarillo, Rev. Oscar J. Miller, C. M., Registrar

Saint Mary's College of California, Saint Mary's College, Brother U. Cassian, Dean San Diego Junior College, San Diego, A. W. Nall, Registrar, Director of Guidance San Diego State College, San Diego, Mrs. Marion L. Parker, Registrar

San Francisco College for Women, San Francisco

San Francisco Junior College, San Francisco, Mary Jane Learnard, Registrar

San Francisco State College, San Francisco, Florence Vance, Registrar University of San Francisco, San Francisco, William J. Dillon, Registrar San Jose State College, San Jose, C. W. Quinley, Jr., Registrar Santa Ana College, Santa Ana, Genevieve Humiston, Registrar University of Santa Clara, Santa Clara, D. Arata, Registrar Santa Rosa Junior College, Santa Rosa, Louise B. Hallberg, Registrar

· Scripps College, Claremont, Mrs. Cecily A. Hall, Registrar

College of the Sequoias, Visalia, The Registrar

Southern California Bible College, Costa Mesa, Ward R. Williams, Acting Registrar \* University of Southern California, Los Angeles, H. W. Patmore, Registrar; Herman J. Sheffield, Director of Admissions and Registration

Southwestern University, Los Angeles, Lucile Pauls, Registrar

· Stanford University, Stanford, Harvey Hall, Registrar Stockton College, Stockton, L. I. Windmiller, Registrar Upland College, Upland, J. Eugene Haas, Registrar Ventura Junior College, Ventura, Robert W. Pax, Registrar Westmont College, Santa Barbara, Willard Harley, Acting Registrar

· Whittier College, Whittier, The Registrar

Williams College, Berkeley, Irene C. Hopkins, Registrar

#### COLORADO

Adams State College, Alamosa, Mrs. Esther H. Lyman, Registrar

- · Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College, Fort Collins, Stella Morris, Registrar
- Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Mrs. Ruth Scoggin, Registrar; Dean H. E. Mathias, Director of Admissions

· Colorado School of Mines, Golden, William V. Burger, Director of Admissions

· Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, R. M. Carson, Registrar Colorado Woman's College, Denver, George W. Gibbs, Registrar

- · University of Colorado, Boulder, John Russell Little, Director of Admissions and Records
- · University of Denver, Denver, Charles H. Maruth, Director of Admissions and Records; University Park Campus, Marjorie M. Cutler, Registrar Fort Lewis Agricultural and Mechanical College, Hesperus, Charles H. Reid, Jr.,

Director of Admissions and Registrar

La Junta Junior College, La Junta, Jean Blamsten, Registrar Loretto Heights College, Loretto, Sister Pauline Marie, Registrar

Mesa County Junior College, Grand Junction, Mrs. Mattie F. Dorsey, Registrar

Pueblo Junior College, Pueblo, Lulu L. Cuthbertson, Registrar

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Rockmont College, Denver, Casey Smith, Registrar

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Saint Thomas Seminary, Bloomfield, Rev. Francis A. Fries, Registrar

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Trinity College, Hartford, Arthur H. Hughes, Dean

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St. Xavier College, Chicago, Sister Mary Charlotte, Registrar

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 Earlham College, Richmond, Elizabeth K. Edwards, Registrar; Kent Morse, Director of Admissions

Evansville College, Evansville, The Registrar

Fort Wayne Bible College, Fort Wayne, Harvey L. Mitchell, Registrar
Franklin College, Franklin, Virfsel Roe, Registrar

Goshen College, Goshen, Paul Bender, Registrar

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Marian College, Indianapolis, Sister M. Rachel, Registrar

Marion College, Marion, Doris I. Clevenger, Registrar

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Purdue University, Lafayette, C. E. Dammon, Registrar Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terre Haute, J. G. Lee, Registrar

St. Francis College, Fort Wayne

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Saint Joseph's College, Collegeville, Charles J. Robbins, Registrar

Saint Mary's College, Notre Dame, Sister M. Anastasia, Dean

Saint Mary-of-the-Woods College, Saint Mary-of-the-Woods, Sister Celeste, Registrar Taylor University, Upland, Grace Olson, Registrar Tri-State College, Angola, Vern Jones, Registrar Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, A. F. Scribner, Registrar Vincennes University, Vincennes, Medrith A. Jordon, Registrar Wabash College, Crawfordsville, The Registrar

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Coe College, Cedar Rapids, John A. Fisher, Registrar

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Des Moines Still College of Osteopathy and Surgery, Des Moines, Wendell R. Fuller, Registrar

 Drake University, Des Moines, Roy W. Bixler, Registrar; Eli A. Zubay, Director of Admissions

 University of Dubuque, Dubuque, William G. Rozeboom, Registrar; Harry Alan Turner, Director of Admissions

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Grand View College, Des Moines, Alfred C. Nielsen, Registrar

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Ottumwa Heights College, Ottumwa, Sister Marie Ancille, Dean

Saint Ambrose College, Davenport, Juanita Monholland, Registrar; Rev. John P. Dolan, Admission Officer

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· Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg

· University of Kansas, Lawrence, James K. Hitt, Registrar

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Kentucky State College, Frankfort, David H. Bradford, Dean and Registrar

University of Kentucky, Lexington, Richard L. Tuthill, Registrar

Kentucky Wesleyan College, Owensboro, H. Owen Long, Registrar

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· Hood College, Frederick, Grace N. Brown, Registrar

 Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Irene M. Davis, Registrar; William Logan, Director of Admissions

Loyola College, Baltimore, The Dean

Maryland State College, Division of University of Maryland at Princess Anne, Princess Anne, Violet J. Wood, Director of Admissions

Maryland State Teachers College, Towson, Rebecca C. Tansil, Director of Admissions,

Eleanor Tibbetts, Registrar

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Montgomery Junior College, Takoma Park, Harriett C. Preble, Registrar
Morgan State College, Baltimore, Edward N. Wilson, Registrar
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Wheaton College, Norton

Wheelock College, Boston, Laura A. Townsend, Registrar

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\* Worcester Polytechnic Institute, Worcester, Gertrude R. Rugg, Registrar

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- Bay City Junior College, Bay City, W. E. Thorsberg, Registrar
- Calvin College, Grand Rapids, H. C. Dekker, Registrar
- Central Michigan College of Education, Mount Pleasant, David M. Trout, Registrar
- Cleary College, Ypsilanti, Walter Greig, Registrar
  - Dearborn Junior College, Dearborn, Fred K. Eshleman, Dean
- Detroit College of Law, Detroit, Charles H. King, Dean
- Detroit Institute of Musical Art, Detroit, William H. Rees, Registrar
  - Detroit Institute of Technology, Detroit, J. S. Young, Registrar
  - University of Detroit, Detroit, Joseph A. Berkowski, Registrar
  - Emmanuel Missionary College, Berrien Springs, Mrs. Wanda Wescott MacMorland, Director of Admissions
  - Ferris Institute, Big Rapids, Harold E. Wisner, Registrar
  - Flint Junior College, Flint, Muriel Parsell, Registrar
  - Gogebic Junior College, Ironwood, Jacob Solin, Director
  - Grand Rapids Junior College, Grand Rapids, Ruth Richason, Registrar
  - The Highland Park Junior College, Highland Park, Grant O. Withey, Dean
  - Hillsdale College, Hillsdale, Florence Kreiter, Registrar
  - Hope College, Holland, Paul E. Hinkamp, Registrar
  - Jackson Junior College, Jackson, Barbara H. Fausell, Registrar
  - Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Registrar and Director of Student Personnel
  - Lawrence Institute of Technology, Highland Park, Genevieve Dooley, Registrar
- Marygrove College, Detroit, Sister Miriam Fidelis
- Mercy College, Detroit, Sister R.S.M., Registrar
  Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Mrs. Maybelle Stevens, Registrar
  - Michigan College of Mining and Technology, Houghton, L. F. Duggan, Registrar
- Michigan College of Mining and Technology, Sault Ste. Marie, H. L. Crawford, Registrar
  - Michigan State College, East Lansing, Robert S. Linton, Registrar
  - Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Everett L. Marshall, Registrar
- University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Ira M. Smith, Registrar; Clyde Vroman, Director of Admissions
- Nazareth College, Nazareth, Sister Marie Arthur, Registrar
  - Northern Michigan College of Education, Marquette, L. O. Gant, Registrar
  - Olivet College, Olivet, Helen M. Mitchell, Registrar
- Owosso Bible College, Owosso, Charles R. Randolph, Registrar
  - Port Huron Junior College, Port Huron, John H. McKenzie, Registrar
- Sacred Heart Seminary, Detroit, Rev. Edmond A. Fournier, Registrar and Director of Admissions; Rev. William E. Hoerauf, Admissions Officer
- -St. Mary's College, Orchard Lake, The Registrar
- -Siena Heights College, Adrian, Sister M. Bertha, Registrar
- Spring Arbor Junior College, Spring Arbor, Floyd F. McCallum, Dean, Registrar
  - Suomi College, Hancock, Soine A. Torma, Admissions-Registration
  - Wayne University, Detroit, H. H. Pixley, Director of Admissions, Records and Registration
  - Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, John C. Hoekje, Registrar; Leonard Gernant, Assistant Registrar

#### MINNESOTA

Augsburg College, Minneapolis, Mildred Joel, Registrar Bethany Lutheran College, Mankato, N. S. Holte, Registrar

Bethel College, St. Paul, C. E. Carlson, Dean

\*Carleton College, Northfield, Kenneth W. Wegner, Registrar Concordia College, Moorhead, Carl R. Narveson, Registrar Concordia College, St. Paul, Oswald B. Overn, Registrar

· Gustavus Adolphus College, St. Peter, Oliver C. Hagglund, Registrar Hamline University, St. Paul, Claribelle B, Olson, Registrar; Arthur S. Williamson, Director of Admissions

Macalester College, St. Paul, Raymond Jay Bradley, Registrar Mankato State Teachers College, Mankato, W. A. Cox, Registrar

· University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, True E. Pettingill, Office of the Registrar University of Minnesota, Duluth Branch, Duluth, The Registrar

· Northwestern Schools, Minneapolis, William P. Gowler, Acting Registrar Rochester Junior College, Rochester, Hazel H. Creal, Registrar College of St. Benedict, St. Joseph, Sister Paula Reiten, O.S.B., Registrar College of St. Catherine, Saint Paul, Sister Helen Margaret, Registrar St. John's University, Collegeville, Rev. Arno Gustin, O.S.B., Registrar Saint Mary's College, Winona, Brother J. Leo, Registrar

· St. Olaf College, Northfield, Inez Freyseth, Registrar; C. R. Swanson, Director of Admissions

The Saint Paul Seminary, St. Paul, Rev. George J. Ziskovsky, Registrar College of Saint Scholastica, Duluth, Sister M. Mercedes Ryan, Registrar College of Saint Teresa, Winona, Sister Mary Gretchen Berg, Registrar College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Rev. Donald J. Gormley, Registrar

State Teachers College, Bemidji

State Teachers College, Moorhead, Earl Foremann, Director of Admissions, Records, and Evaluation

State Teachers College, St. Cloud

Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Helen B. Pritchard, Registrar Worthington Junior College, Worthington, W. Donald Olsen, Dean

#### MISSISSIPPI

Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College, Alcorn, Marie M. Garner, Registrar Belhaven College, Jackson, The Registrar Hinds Junior College, Raymond, Mildred L. Herrin, Registrar Jackson College, Jackson, De Lars Funches, Registrar

· Millsaps College, Jackson, Paul D. Hardin, Registrar Mississippi College, Clinton, Addie Mae Stevens, Registrar

Mississippi Delta State Teachers College, Cleveland, Katie Mauldin, Registrar Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg, O. N. Darby, Registrar

Mississippi State College, State College, Theodore K. Martin, Registrar · Mississippi State College for Women, Columbus, G. T. Buckley, Registrar

· University of Mississippi, University, Robert B. Ellis, Registrar; Tom S. Hines, Assistant Registrar; Katherine Rea, Admissions Counselor

Mississippi Vocational College, Itta Bena, Alvin J. McNeil, Registrar Mississippi Woman's College, Hattiesburg, Evelyn Ewell, Registrar

#### MISSOURI

Central Bible Institute and Seminary, Springfield, R. L. Katter, Registrar Central College, Fayette, Martha C. Ricketts, Registrar

Central Missouri State College, Warrensburg, Mrs. Margaret Brown, Registrar

· Christian College, Columbia, Mrs. Harriet Williams, Registrar Concordia Theological Seminary, St. Louis, L. C. Wuerffel, Dean

Culver-Stockton College, Canton, The Registrar

 Drury College, Springfield, Mrs. Gertrude Rockwell, Registrar Fontbonne College, St. Louis, Sister Ellen Mary, C.S.J., Registrar Hannibal-LaGrange College, Hannibal, Howard S. Higdon, Dean and Registrar Harris Teachers College, St. Louis, Wilmar R. Schneider, Registrar Joplin Junior College, Joplin, Margaret Mitchell, Registrar Junior College, Kansas City, R. A. Ball, Director of Admissions Kansas City College of Osteopathy and Surgery, Kansas City, Kenneth J. Davis, Dean

University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Caleb G. Shipley, Director of Admissions

 Kemper Military School, Boonville, Dean F. J. Marston Lincoln University, Jefferson City, The Registrar

• Lindenwood College, St. Charles, The Registrar Maryville College, St. Louis, Mother Lucille J. Pezolt, r.s.c.j., Registrar

· University of Missouri School of Mines and Metallurgy, Rolla, Noel Hubbard · University of Missouri, Columbia, S. Woodson Canada, Registrar; Charles W. Mc-Lane, Director of Admissions

Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Stanley R. Hayden, Registrar National College for Christian Workers, Kansas City, Frieda M. Gipson, Registrar Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, Orville Bowers, Registrar Northwest Missouri State College, Maryville, R. P. Foster, Registrar

Notre Dame Junior College, St. Louis, Sister M. Renelle, S.S.N.D., Registrar Park College, Parkville, H. L. Williams, Registrar

Rockhurst College, Kansas City, Rev. Joseph E. Gough, Dean and Admissions Officer; Paul D. Arend, Registrar

St. Joseph Junior College, St. Joseph, Nelle Blum, Dean

St. Louis Institute of Music, St. Louis, Mrs. Velma T. Honig, Registrar

St. Louis Preparatory Seminary, St. Louis, J. J. Edwards C.M., Dean of Studies and Registrar

St. Louis University, St. Louis, Paul T. McDonald, Registrar; Richard Keefe, Director of Admissions

St. Louis University, School of Law, St. Louis, Robert Vining, Registrar

St. Mary's Seminary, Perryville, Rev. L. J. Leonard, C. M., Dean of Studies

St. Paul's College, Concordia, Allen Nauss, Dean of Studies

Saint Teresa's Senior College, Kansas City, Sister Ann Regis, Registrar Southeast Missouri State College, Cape Girardeau, E. F. Vaeth, Registrar

Southwest Baptist College, Bolivar, The Registrar Southwest Missouri State Teachers College, Springfield, Guy H. Thompson, Registrar

• Stephens College, Columbia, P. R. M. Armstrong, Registrar; Machin Garner, Director of Admissions

Tarkio College, Tarkio, Fred L. Keller, Registrar

 Washington University, St. Louis, O. W. Wagner, Director of Student Records; William Glasgow Bowling, Dean of Admissions Washington University, School of Medicine, St. Louis, W. B. Parker, Registrar

Webster College, Webster Groves, Sister Alexander Marie, Registrar

Wentworth Military Academy, Lexington, Dallas C. Buck, Dean

· William Jewell College, Liberty, E. W. Holzapfel, Dean of Students; F. M. Derwacter, Registrar

· William Woods College, Fulton, Dean W. A. Brandenburg, Registrar

#### MONTANA

Carroll College, Helena, William Ogle

Custer County Junior College, Miles City, D. B. Campbell, Dean and Registrar Eastern Montana College of Education, Billings, Lincoln J. Aikins, Registrar

College of Great Falls, Great Falls, Sister Helen Paula, Registrar

Montana School of Mines, Butte, W. M. Brown, Registrar

Montana State College, Bozeman, Martha L. Hawksworth, Registrar

Northern Montana College, Havre

· State University of Montana, Missoula, Leo Smith, Registrar

Western Montana College of Education, Dillon, Dorothy Gelhaus, Registrar

#### NEBRASKA

Concordia Teachers College, Seward, Willa Koenig, Registrar Creighton University, Omaha, Jack N. Williams, Registrar

Dana College, Blair, F. H. Larson, Registrar
• Doane College, Crete, Loyd C. Oleson, Registrar

Duchesne College, Omaha, Mother Catherine McShane, Registrar Fairbury Junior College, Fairbury, Dean L. F. Sinkey, Registrar Grace Bible Institute, Omaha, John R. Dick, Acting Dean

 Hastings College, Hastings, Eunice Chapman, Registrar Midland College, Fremont, Mildred A. Cattern, Registrar

 Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Alice Smith, Registrar Nebraska State Teachers College, Wayne, The Registrar

 University of Nebraska, Lincoln, G. W. Rosenlof, Dean of Admissions and Inter-Institutional Relations

 Nebraska Wesleyan University, Lincoln, Mrs. Helen Luschei, Registrar State Teachers College, Peru, L. B. Mathews, Registrar Union College, Lincoln, Marie Anderson, Registrar

· York College, York, Aaron Bergen, Registrar

#### NEVADA

· University of Nevada, Reno, Clarence E. Byrd, Registrar and Director of Admissions

#### NEW HAMPSHIRE

· Colby Junior College, New London, Elizabeth Sladen, Registrar

· Dartmouth College, Hanover, Robert O. Conant, Registrar

Mount Saint Mary College, Hooksett, Mrs. Mary Patricia Thirsk, Registrar

 University of New Hampshire, Durham, Doris Beane, University Recorder Rivier College, Nashua, Sister Marie Carmella, Dean

#### **NEW JERSEY**

Bloomfield College and Seminary, Bloomfield, Edward M. Carter, Dean

Caldwell College for Women, Caldwell, Sister M. Marguerite, O.P. Registrar

Centenary Junior College, Hackettstown, Edward W. Seay, President; Margaret E. Hight, Dean; Mrs. Mabel W. Kelley, Director of Admissions

Drew University, Madison, Walter A. Glass, Registrar

Fairleigh Dickinson College, Rutherford, Sylvania Sammartino, Registrar; William J. Fewkes, Director, Evening College

Georgian Court College, Lakewood, Sister Mary Incarnata, Registrar

Jersey City Junior College, Jersey City, Frances L. Wilson, Registrar; Catherine L. Hughes, Assistant Registrar

- The Junior College of Bergen County, Teaneck, Mrs. Harriet E. Beggs, Registrar
- Monmouth Junior College, Long Branch, Ruth E. Nebel, Registrar Newark College of Engineering, Newark, E. Alice Hickey, Registrar; Frank A.
- Grammer, Dean of Students and Director of Admissions New Jersey State Teachers College, Jersey City, F. A. Irwin, President
- New Jersey State Teachers College, Montclair, Mr. Steiner
- New Jersey State Teachers College, Newark, Vera F. Minkin, Registrar
- New Jersey State Teachers College, Paterson, Joan Fischer, Registrar
- Panzer College of Physical Education and Hygiene, East Orange, Hazel M. Wacker, Registrar
- Princeton University, Princeton, Howard W. Stepp, Registrar
- · Rider College, Trenton, J. Goodner Gill, Vice-President
- Rutgers University, New Brunswick, L. H. Martin, Registrar; George A. Kramer, University Director of Admissions
- Newark Colleges of Rutgers University, Newark, Hugh F. Bennett, Jr., Registrar; Agnes D. Watt, Director of Admissions
- New Jersey College for Women, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, Mrs. Verna M. Werlock, Registrar; Edna M. Newby, Director of Admissions Office
- The College of South Jersey, Rutgers University, Camden, Margaret Zipp, Registrar; Harold A. Eaton, Director of Admissions
- College of Saint Elizabeth, Convent Station, Sister Rose Therese, Registrar; Sister M. Kathleen, Directress of Admission
- Saint Peter's College, Jersey City, Kenneth J. Dwyer, Registrar; Vincent P. Mc-Inerney, Registrar, School of Business Administration
- Seton Hall College, South Orange, M. K. Fitzsimmons, Registrar
- Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, N. H. Memory
- Trenton Junior College, Trenton, Janet S. Trembath, Registrar
- Union Junior College, Cranford, Dorothea Wiersma, Registrar
- Unsele College Feet Orange C. D. Carlson, Secretary Projects
- Upsala College, East Orange, C. P. Carlson, Secretary-Registrar
- Westminster Choir College, Princeton, Rhea B. Williamson, Dean of the College

#### NEW MEXICO

- Eastern New Mexico University, Portales, Ruth Wheeler, Registrar
- New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, State College, Era Renfrow, Registrar
  - New Mexico Highlands University, Las Vegas, C. H. Robinson, Registrar.
  - New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology, Socorro, Arthur P. Stanton, Registrar
- New Mexico Military Institute, Roswell, Office of the Registrar
- New Mexico Western College, Silver City, Donald S. Overturf, Registrar; Mrs. Ruth M. Humphrey, Assistant Registrar
- \* University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, Office of the Registrar
- College of Saint Joseph-on-the-Rio Grande, Albuquerque, Sister M. Catherine Ann, Registrar; Sister M. Richardis, Dean

#### NEW YORK

- Academy of Aeronautics, La Guardia Airport, Walter M. Hartung, Director of Training, Vice President
- \* Adelphi College, Garden City, Rosemary A. Feeney, Registrar
- \* Alfred University, Alfred, Clifford M. Potter, Registrar; William J. O'Conner,
  - Baptist Bible Seminary, Johnson City, Mead C. Armstrong, Registrar

Bard College, Annandale-on-Hudson, Elsie L. Quinn, Registrar; Richard M. Gummere, Jr., Director of Admissions

Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, The Registrar

 The University of Buffalo, Buffalo, Emma E. Deters, Registrar Cazenovia Junior College, Cazenovia, Clarence A. Heagle, Registrar Clarkson College of Technology, Potsdam, F. A. Ramsdell, Registrar

\*Colgate University, Hamilton, William J. Everts, Registrar; William F. Griffith,

Associate Dean

Columbia University, New York, John M. Mullins, Registrar; Harold E. Lowe, Director of University Admissions; Charles P. Hurd, Assistant Director of University Admissions

· Barnard College, Columbia University, New York, Margaret Giddings, Registrar

• Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, Frank H. Hagemeyer, Registrar; Hattie Jarmon, Officer in Charge of Admissions

Concordia Collegiate Institute, Bronxville, The Dean The Cooper Union, New York, Miss Bateman, Registrar

 Cornell University, Ithaca, Eugene F. Bradford, Registrar; Herbert H. Williams, Director of Admissions; David A. Warren, Assistant Registrar

D'Youville College, Buffalo, Sister Alice of the Sacred Heart Elmira College, Elmira, The Registrar

Finch Junior College, New York, Mrs. Doris Broiles Post

 Fordham University, City Hall Division, New York, E. Vincent O'Brien, Registrar Fordham University, College of Arts and Sciences, New York, Rev. Eugene K. Culhane, S.J., Assistant Dean and Director of Admissions

Good Counsel College, White Plains, Sister M. Ambrose, Registrar

\* Hamilton College, Clinton, Mrs. Maleska Robinson, Registrar

 Hartwick College, Oneonta, Gerald E. Reese, Registrar and Director of Admissions, Hobart College, Geneva, John S. Witte, Director of Admissions; Elizabeth R. Durfee, Registrar

Hofstra College, Hempstead, Charles J. Meixel, Registrar

· Houghton College, Houghton, The Registrar

 Hunter College of the City of New York, New York, Mrs. Mary B. J. Lehn, Registrar; Dorothy B. Ball, Assistant Registrar

Iona College, New Rochelle, John J. Elins, Registrar Ithaca College, Ithaca, Florence Howland, Registrar

Jamestown Community College, Jamestown, William Harold Schlifke, Assistant to the President and Dean of Admissions

- Juilliard School of Music, New York, Judson Ehrbar, Registrar

Keuka College, Keuka Park, Helen M. Space, Registrar

Ladycliff College, Highland Falls, Sister Miriam, Registrar Le Moyne College, Syracuse, Theodore G. Meyers, Registrar

Long Island Agricultural and Technical Institute, Farmingdale, H. B. Knapp, Director; Wilson P. Merritt, Assistant Director and Registrar

Long Island University, Brooklyn, Eleanor Roth, Registrar

Manhattan College, New York, Brother Alban, F.S.C., Registrar; John A. Cossa, Director, General Guidance Division

Manhattanville College of the Sacred Heart, Purchase, Mother Gertrude Brady, Registrar

Marymount College, Tarrytown-on-Hudson, M. de Lourdes, Registrar

Marymount College, New York, Mother M. Majella, Registrar

Mills College of Education, 66 Fifth Ave., New York, Margaret M. Devine, Associate Director

The Missionary Training Institute, Nyack, Harold W. Boon, Dean and Registrar Mount Saint Joseph Teachers College, Buffalo, Sister M. Theodosia, Registrar College of Mount Saint Vincent, New York, Sister Miriam Rose, Registrar Nazareth College, Rochester, Sister Marie Anne, Registrar

College of New Rochelle, New Rochelle, Mother M. Paula Bero, O.S.U., Registrar The New School for Social Research, New York, Mary Lynn, Registrar, Graduate Division; Charles Godley, Registrar, Adult Education Division

 College of the City of New York, New York, Robert L. Taylor, Registrar The City College (School of Business), New York, Agnes Clare Mulligan, Assistant Registrar

New York School of Social Work, New York, Dorothy Evans, Registrar New York State College of Forestry, Syracuse, Raymond F. Crossman, Registrar

New York State College for Teachers, Albany, The Registrar

New York University, New York, Elwood C. Kastner, Registrar Niagara University, Niagara University, Charles J. Edgette, Dean

Notre Dame College of Staten Island, Staten Island, Sister St. Mary Caroline,

Pace College, New York, S. A. Nock, Registrar; Joseph S. Treu, Recorder Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, Mrs. Eileen North, Registrar The Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, Brooklyn, George S. Eaton, Registrar Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, Holman J. Swinney, Registrar and Director of Admissions

» Queens College, Flushing, Howard A. Knag, Registrar

Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, John A. Dunlop, Registrar Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, Alfred A. Johns, Registrar

 University of Rochester, Rochester, Olive M. Schrader, Registrar; Charles R. Dalton, Director of Admissions and Director of Student Aid

University of Rochester, School of Liberal and Aplied Studies, Rochester, Ruth M. Harper, Secretary-Registrar

University of Rochester, College for Women, Rochester, Constance H. Wood, Registrar

 Eastman School of Music, University of Rochester, Rochester, Arthur H. Larson, Secretary-Registrar

\* Russell Sage College, Troy, Eva Margaret Pearson, Director of Admissions

St. Bernardine of Siena College, Loudonville, Rev. Aurelius A. Fell, O.F.M.,

St. Bonaventure College, St. Bonaventure, Rev. Kevin Fox, O.F.M., Registrar

St. Francis College, Brooklyn, Nell M. Rothschild, Registrar

St. John's University, Brooklyn, Frederick E. Kienle, Registrar St. John's University, Graduate School, Brooklyn, Marion F. Muchow, Registrar

St. John's University, Teachers College, Brooklyn, Ruth M. Himmelsbach, Registrar St. John's University, College of Pharmacy, Brooklyn, Agnes G. Tighe, Registrar

St. John's University, School of Commerce, Brooklyn, Marguerite L. Sullivan, Regis-

St. John's University, School of Law, Brooklyn, Marie Schluter, Registrar

St. Joseph's College for Women, Brooklyn, Sister Veneranda, Registrar St. Lawrence University, Canton, Helen Whalen, Registrar; J. Moreau Brown, Director of Admissions

College of Saint Rose, Albany, Sister Therese, Registrar

Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, Alice M. Bovard, Director of Admissions Shelton College, New York, G. Douglas Young, Registrar

"Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, Anna Ludington Hobbs, Registrar State Teachers College, Brockport, Ella M. Orts, Registrar

State Teachers College, Buffalo, The Registrar

State Teachers College, Fredonia, Alva M. Keen, Registrar

State Teachers College, New Paltz, The Registrar

State Teachers College, Potsdam, Dorothy A. Hall, Registrar

State University Teachers College, Oswego, Mrs. Mary D. Hennessey, Registrar State University of New York, Medical Center at New York City, Brooklyn, The Registrar

State University of New York, Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences, Buffalo, Laurence E. Spring, Assistant Director for Extension and Registrar

State University of New York, Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences, White Plains, Robert H. Reynolds, Registrar

State University of New York, College of Forestry, Syracuse, Marguerite A. Van Bree, Registrar

State University of New York, Harpur College, Endicott, Walter J. Mehl, Dean of Students; Aysel Searles, Jr., Admissions Counselor

State University Teachers College, Genesee, Joseph W. Cole, Director of College Records

· Syracuse University, Syracuse, K. J. Kennedy, Registrar

- Union College, Schenectady, Mrs. Charlotte M. Rapelje, Registrar

United States Merchant Marine Academy, Kings Point, Lt. Raymond W. Kana, USMS, Registrar

United States Military Academy, West Point, Robert T. Timbers, Registrar

\*Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, Julia G. Bacon, Recorder Wagner Memorial Lutheran College, Staten Island

\*Wells College, Aurora, Barbara Alden, Recorder

Yeshiva University, Yeshiva College of Liberal Arts and Science, New York, Morris Silverman, Registrar; Jacob I. Hartstein, Dean, Graduate Division

#### NORTH CAROLINA

\* The Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina, Greensboro, C. R. Cunningham, Registrar

Atlantic Christian College, Wilson, Perry Case, Registrar

Bennett College for Women, Greensboro, Willa B. Player, Registrar

Brevard College, Brevard, Mrs. Mary B. Livengood, Registrar

Charlotte College, Charlotte, Lucille A. Puette, Registrar

Davidson College, Davidson, Fred W. Hengeveld, Registrar

 Duke University, Durham, E. B. Weatherspoon, Director of Admissions; Helen M. Kendall, Recorder

East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, J. K. Long, Registrar

Elon College, Elon, A. L. Hook, Registrar

Flora Macdonald College, Red Springs, Hazel Morrison, Dean of Faculty and Registrar

Greensboro College, Greensboro, Letha Brock, Registrar

High Point College, High Point, N. P. Yarborough, Registrar

Johnson C. Smith University, Charlotte, J. Arthur Twitty, Registrar

Lees-McRae College, Banner Elk, Paul H. McEwen, Dean and Registrar

Lenoir-Rhyne College, Hickory, Edwin L. Setzler, Registrar

Livingstone College, Salisbury, Julia B. Duncan, Registrar

Louisburg College, Louisberg, Mrs. Collins Gretter, Registrar

· Meredith College, Raleigh, Mrs. Vera Tart Marsh, Registrar

Mitchell College, Statesville, The Registrar

North Carolina College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh, W. L. Mayer, Director of Registration

North Carolina College at Durham, Durham, Frances H. Eagleson, Registrar

University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, Roy Armstrong, Director

. The Women's College of the University of North Carolina, Greensboro, Mildred Newton, Director of Admissions

Peace College, Raleigh, Frances Suter, Registrar

Pembroke State College, Pembroke, James A. Jacobs, Registrar Pineland College, Salemburg, Don R. Womble, Registrar Oueens College, Charlotte, Mrs. Carolyn Good, Registrar Salem College, Winston-Salem, Margaret L. Simpson, Registrar \*Wake Forest College, Wake Forest, Grady S. Patterson, Registrar

Wilmington College, Wilmington, J. Marshall Crews, Registrar

\*Winston-Salem Teachers College, Winston-Salem, Frances R. Coble, Registrar

#### NORTH DAKOTA

Jamestown College, Jamestown, William Westley, Registrar North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo, The Registrar North Dakota State School of Science, Wahpeton, W. M. Nordgaard, Registrar \*University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, Ruby M. McKenzie, Registrar State Normal and Industrial College, Ellendale, Mrs. Alice Peterson Banks, Secretary and Treasurer

State Teachers College, Dickinson, Jacob R. Hehn, Registrar State Teachers College, Mayville, J. Evert Scholten, Registrar State Teachers College, Minot, O. L. Alm, Registrar State Teachers College, Valley City, Adolph Soroos, Registrar

University of Akron, Akron, Richard H. Schmidt, Registrar Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Miriam L. Dickinson, Registrar; Mrs. Fressa Baker Inman, Director of Admissions Ashland College, Ashland, Martha E. Holmes, Recorder

Baldwin-Wallace College, Berea, Jess J. Petty, Registrar Bluffton College, Bluffton, Ray S. Hilty, Registrar

Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green, Glenn Van Wormer, Registrar Capital University, Columbus, Frances Quinlan, Registrar

Case Institute of Technology, Cleveland, W. E. Nudd, Registrar -Central State College, Wilberforce, Gladys L. Powell, Registrar

Cincinnati College of Pharmacy, Cincinnati, Arthur R. Weitkamp, Registrar

University of Cincinnati, Campus Section, Cincinnati, Kenneth Ray Varner, Registrar Cleveland Bible College, Cleveland, Ora D. Lovell, Dean and Registrar

University of Dayton, Dayton, Joseph Mervar, Registrar

Denison University, Granville, Donald R. Fitch, Registrar; Charlotte F. Weeks, Secretary of the Admissions Committee

Fenn College, Cleveland, William A. Patterson, Registrar Findlay College, Findlay, Myrtle Deming, Registrar

Franklin University, Columbus, Joseph F. Frasch, Director

Heidelberg College, Tiffin, C. Lucille Christman, Registrar; William Nestor, Director of Admissions

Hiram College, Hiram, Lawrence C. Underwood, Registrar John Carroll University, Cleveland, Eugene Mittinger, Registrar Kent State University, Kent, Charles E. Atkinson, Registrar

Kenyon College, Gambier, S. R. McGowan, Registrar; W. Tracey Scudder, Director of Admissions

Lake Erie College, Painesville, C. T. Ruddick, Secretary

Marietta College, Marietta, Mrs. Lillian Spindler Sinclair, Registrar

-Mary Manse College, Toledo, Sister M. Ethelreda, Registrar

Miami University, Oxford, Wm. C. Smyser, Registrar; Harry M. Gerlach, Director of Admissions

-College of Mount St. Joseph-On-The-Ohio, Mount St. Joseph, Sister Reginald, Registrar

Mount Union College, Alliance, Robert W. Tripp, Registrar

College of Music of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Marjora W. Shank, Registrar and Dean of Women

Muskingum College, New Concord, Carrie E. McKnight, Registrar

Notre Dame College, South Euclid, Sister Mary Aquinas

Oberlin College, Oberlin, Edith Stanley, Registrar

Ohio Mechanics Institute, Cincinnati, Hazel S. Selby, Registrar Ohio Northern University, Ada, J. A. Woofter, Registrar

The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ronald B. Thompson, Registrar

Ohio University, Athens, Robert E. Mahn, Registrar; F. B. Dilley, Director of Admissions

Ohio Wesleyan University, Dalaware, Allan C. Ingraham, Registrar

Otterbein College, Westerville, Floyd J. Vance, Registrar

Our Lady of Cincinnati College, Cincinnati, Sister Mary Martina, R.S.M., Registrar

- St. John College, Cleveland, Rose Mary Bland, Registrar

- College of St. Mary of the Springs, Columbus, Sister Marie Rosaire, O.P., Registrar Sinclair College, Dayton, C. C. Bussey, Director

The College of Steubenville, Steubenville, Rev. Philip A. Clarke, T.O.R., Academic Dean-Registrar

-The Teachers College, Athenaeum of Ohio, Cincinnati, Rev. Carl J. Ryan, Dean University of Toledo, Toledo, Mrs. Alina Markowski, Registrar

Ursuline College, Cleveland, Sister Grace, Registrar Western College, Oxford, Mrs. Marian Miller, Registrar and Director of Admissions Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Edward T. Downer, Registrar

Wilberforce University, Wilberforce, F. A. McGinnis, Registrar

Wilmington College, Wilmington, Sarah F. Castle, Registrar Wittenberg College, Springfield, Helen Dyer, Registrar College of Wooster, Wooster, Arthur F. Southwick, Registrar -Xavier University, Cincinnati, Raymond Fellinger, Registrar

- Youngstown College, Youngstown, P. P. Buchanan, Registrar

#### OKLAHOMA

Benedictine Heights College, Guthrie

Bethany-Peniel College, Bethany, C. H. Wiman, Registrar

Central State College, Edmond

Conners State Agricultural College, Warner, Anna B. Catlin, Registrar

East Central State College, Ada, W. Harvey Faust, Registrar

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Langston University, Langston, C. D. Batchlor, Registrar

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